

Lectures on Quantum
Field Theory

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QFT Redhead QFT

Lecture I

Relativistic Wave
Equations

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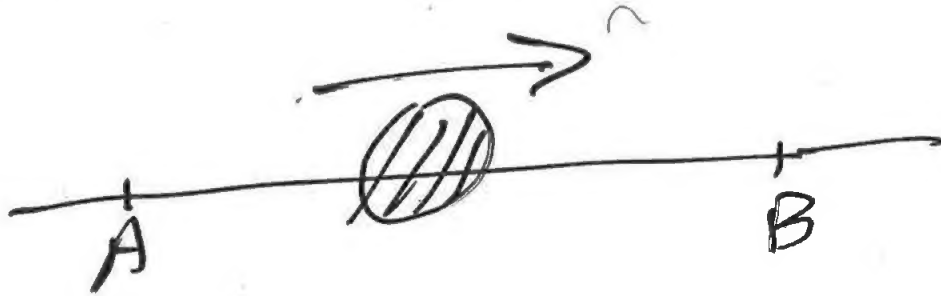
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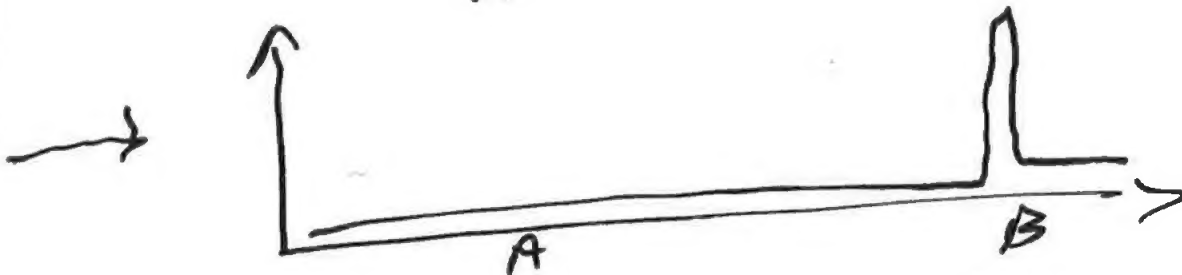
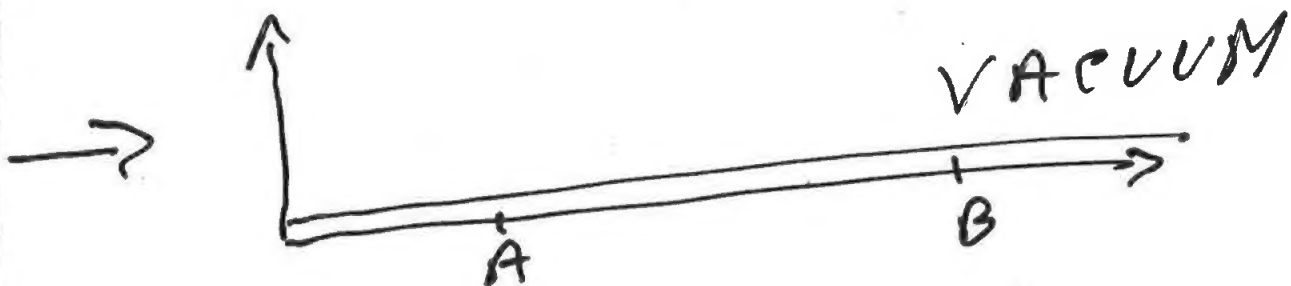
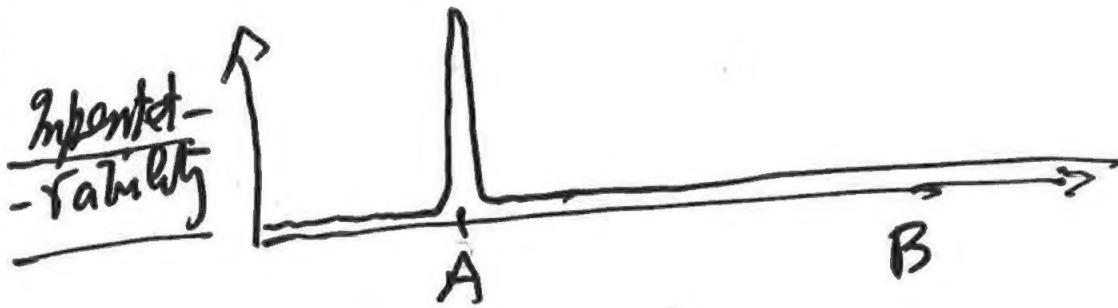
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Particles and Fields

Particle motion from A to B



Field Description in terms of Inpenetrability



RELATIVISTIC WAVE EQUATIONS ⁽⁵⁾

$$E^2 = p^2 c^2 + m^2 c^4$$

Klein - Gordon

$$E \rightarrow i\hbar \frac{\partial}{\partial t}, \quad p \rightarrow -i\hbar \nabla$$

So we get

$$\left(\frac{1}{c^2} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial t^2} - \nabla^2 + \mu^2 \right) \psi = 0$$

$$\text{where } \mu = mc/\hbar$$

Dirac

$$E = (\underline{\alpha} \cdot \underline{p})c + \beta mc^2$$

$$\text{So } i\hbar \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial t} = -i\hbar \underline{\alpha} \cdot \underline{\nabla} \psi + \beta mc^2 \psi$$

where β & components of $\underline{\alpha}$
anti commute.

NR localization

'Eigenstate' of position (non-normalizable)
at the point $\underline{\xi}$ is (in 3-dimensions)

$$\phi_{\underline{\xi}}(\underline{x}) = \delta^3(\underline{x} - \underline{\xi}) \quad (1)$$

Inner product of $\phi_{\underline{\xi}}$ and $\phi_{\underline{\xi}'}$ is

$$\begin{aligned} \langle \phi_{\underline{\xi}'} | \phi_{\underline{\xi}} \rangle &= \int d^3x \phi_{\underline{\xi}'}^*(\underline{x}) \phi_{\underline{\xi}}(\underline{x}) \\ &= \delta(\underline{\xi} - \underline{\xi}') \quad (2) \end{aligned}$$

So for $\underline{\xi} \neq \underline{\xi}'$, $\phi_{\underline{\xi}}$ & $\phi_{\underline{\xi}'}$ are orthogonal

Note $\|\phi_{\underline{\xi}}\| = \sqrt{\delta(0)}$ is infinite

To deal with this we introduce
wave-packet $\psi_{\underline{\xi}}(\underline{x}) = \int \bar{F}_{\underline{\xi}}(\underline{\xi}') \phi_{\underline{\xi}'}(\underline{x}) d^3\xi'$

centred around $\underline{\xi}$

$$\text{So } \psi_{\underline{\xi}}(\underline{x}) = (2\pi)^{-3/2} \int d^3k \bar{F}_{\underline{\xi}}(\underline{k}) e^{i\underline{k} \cdot \underline{x}}$$

where $\bar{F}_{\underline{\xi}}(\underline{k})$ is F.T. of $\bar{F}_{\underline{\xi}}(\underline{\xi}')$

$$\text{Then } \|\psi_{\underline{\xi}}(\underline{x})\|^2 = \int d^3k |\bar{F}_{\underline{\xi}}(\underline{k})|^2 d^3k$$

Note more generally that, if (7) (13)
 $F(\underline{k})$ is F.T. of $\psi(\underline{x})$

$$\text{Then } \langle \psi_1 | \psi_2 \rangle = \int d^3k \overline{F_1(\underline{k})} \cdot F_2(\underline{k})$$

— (3)

Relativistic Localization

Inner product (3) is not invariant

Soln: If

$$\psi(\underline{x}, t) = (2\pi)^{-3/2} \int \frac{d^3k}{w(\underline{k})} e^{i(\underline{k} \cdot \underline{x} - w(\underline{k})t)} \cdot F(\underline{k})$$

where $w(\underline{k}) \equiv \frac{dE}{d\underline{k}} = \sqrt{m^2 + \underline{k}^2}$

Then note that if ψ is a scalar field (K.R. Exn), then since $\frac{d^3k}{w(\underline{k})}$ is invariant measure on the mass-shell

$F(\underline{k})$ is a scalar function of \underline{k} , i.e. $F'(\underline{k}') = F(\underline{k})$ where \underline{k}' is the boost of \underline{k} on the mass-shell

Then Invariant inner product
is given by.

$$\langle \psi_1 | \psi_2 \rangle = \int \frac{d^3 k}{\omega(k)} F_1(k)^* \cdot F_2(k) \quad (4)$$

This replaces (3) above.

The usual rules for finding amplitudes
and probabilities then apply with the
new inner product.

Let us work at $t=0$,

$$\text{So } \psi(x, 0) = (2\pi)^{-3/2} \int \frac{d^3 k}{\omega(k)} e^{i k \cdot x} F(k) \quad (5)$$

Try various choices for $F(k)$:

$$(1) \quad F(k) = \omega(k) e^{-i k \cdot x} (2\pi)^{-3/2}$$

$$\Rightarrow \psi(x, 0) \rightarrow \frac{1}{(2\pi)^3} \int d^3 k e^{i k \cdot (x - x_0)} = \delta(x - x_0)$$

This is the same as $\phi^3(x)$ for the

N.R. case.

But now $\langle \phi^{3'} | \phi^3 \rangle = (2\pi)^{-3} \int d^3 k \omega(k) e^{i k \cdot (x - x')}$
 $\neq \delta^3(x - x')$

So try again!

(9) (10)

$$(2) \quad F(\underline{k}) = \sqrt{w(\underline{k})} e^{-i\underline{k} \cdot \underline{\xi}'}. \quad (2\pi)^{-3/2}$$

yields

$$\phi^{\xi}(\underline{x}) = (2\pi)^{-3} \int \frac{d^3 \underline{k}}{\sqrt{w(\underline{k})}} e^{i\underline{k} \cdot (\underline{x} - \underline{\xi})} \quad (6)$$
$$(\neq \delta(\underline{x} - \underline{\xi}))$$

But now

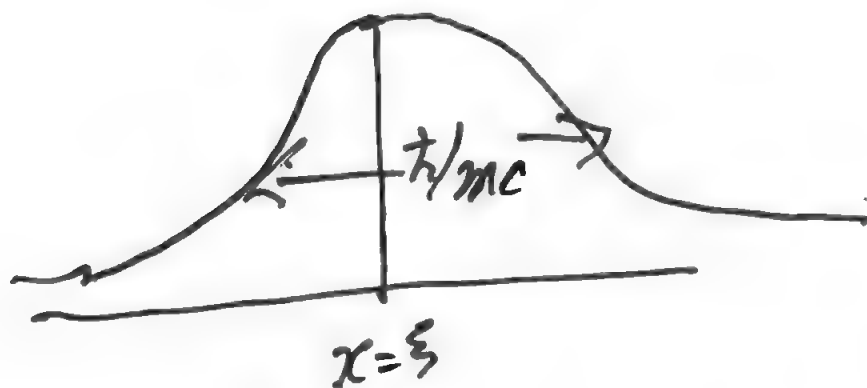
$$\langle \phi^{\xi'} | \phi^{\xi} \rangle = (2\pi)^{-3} \int \frac{d^3 \underline{k}}{w(\underline{k})} \sqrt{w(\underline{k})} \cdot \sqrt{w(\underline{k})} e^{i\underline{k} \cdot (\underline{\xi}' - \underline{\xi})}$$
$$= \delta(\underline{\xi}' - \underline{\xi})$$

as we want!

The state (6) is the famous Newman-Wigner state

$$\text{In fact } \phi^{\xi}(\underline{x}) \sim K_{3/4}(|\underline{x} - \underline{\xi}|)$$
$$\sim e^{-|\underline{x} - \underline{\xi}|}$$

where K_m is modified Hankel function
of the first kind



$$|x - \xi|$$

Note: spread of ϕ^ξ in x -space
 has nothing to do with interactions
 or pair production etc
 — we are just doing 1-particle
RQT

N.W. Wave-packets

$$\psi^\xi(x) = \int F_\xi(\xi') \phi^{\xi'}(x) d^3 \xi'$$

$$\text{where } F_\xi(\xi') = \langle \phi^{\xi'} | \psi^\xi \rangle$$

and as in N-R analysis we
 can write

$$\psi^\xi(x) = (2\pi)^{-3/2} \int \frac{d^3 k}{\sqrt{\omega(k)}} \tilde{F}_\xi(k) e^{ik \cdot x}$$

where $\tilde{F}_\xi(k)$ is F.T. of $F_\xi(\xi')$

For general state $\psi(\underline{x})$ (11) (17)
what is probability amplitude $G(\underline{\xi})$
for finding particle at $\underline{\xi}$?

Expand $\psi(\underline{x}) = \int G(\underline{\xi}) \phi^3(\underline{x}) d^3 \underline{\xi}$

Then it is easy to show that

$$G(\underline{\xi}) = (2\pi)^{-3/2} \int \frac{d^3 \underline{k}}{\sqrt{w(\underline{k})}} e^{i \underline{k} \cdot \underline{\xi}} A(\underline{k}) \quad (7)$$

(where $\psi(\underline{x}) = (2\pi)^{-3/2} \int \frac{d^3 \underline{k}}{w(\underline{k})} e^{i \underline{k} \cdot \underline{x}} A(\underline{k})$)

$$= (2\pi)^{-3} \int d^3 \underline{k} \left(\int d^3 \underline{x} \sqrt{w(\underline{k})} \right) e^{i \underline{k} \cdot (\underline{\xi} - \underline{x})} \psi(\underline{x}) \quad (8)$$

Then Probability Density of finding particle
 at $\underline{\xi} = |G(\underline{\xi})|^2$.

We shall apply (7) & (8) to 3 problems

A How to boost $\psi^0(\underline{x})$?

(12)

⑧

In this case $A(\underline{k}) = \hat{F}_0(\underline{k}) \sqrt{w(\underline{k})}$

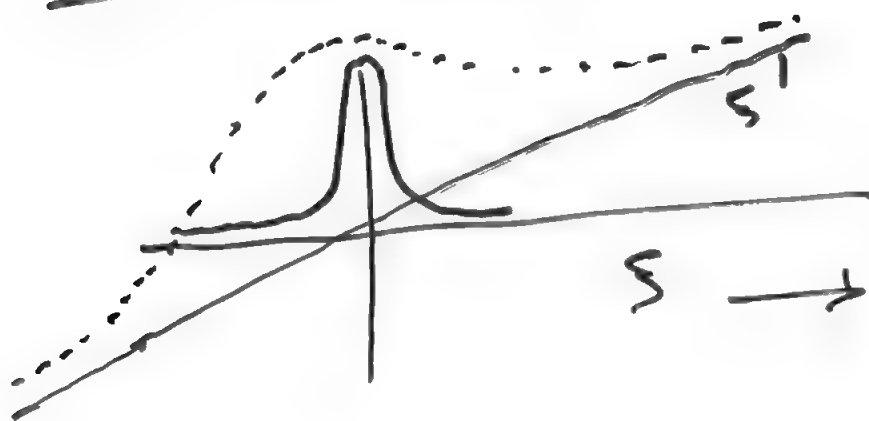
So transformed state in momentum space is

$$A'(\underline{k}) = \hat{F}_0'(\underline{k}) \sqrt{w'(\underline{k})}$$

Hence

$$G(\xi') = (2\pi)^{-3/2} \int d^3k \sqrt{\frac{w'(\underline{k})}{w(\underline{k})}} \hat{F}_0'(\underline{k}) e^{i(\underline{k} \cdot \underline{\xi} - \xi')}$$

$$\neq \hat{F}_0(\xi') \quad !!$$



B Time - Evolution of $\psi^0(x)$

(12) (8)

At time t $\psi^0(x)$ becomes

$$(2\pi)^{-3/2} \int \frac{d^3 k}{\sqrt{\omega(k)}} \cdot \tilde{F}_0(k) e^{i(k \cdot x - \omega(k)t)}$$

So at time t

$$G(\underline{x}) = (2\pi)^{-3/2} \int d^3 k \tilde{F}_0(k) e^{i(k \cdot \underline{x} - \omega(k)t)}$$

This is essentially the integral considered by Heisenfeldt.

$G(\underline{x})$ cannot vanish even for large \underline{x} due to branch points in $\omega(k)$ at $|k| = \pm im$.

A

How to trust $\psi^0(x)$?

14

Q

In this case $A(k) = \tilde{F}_0(k) \sqrt{w(k)}$

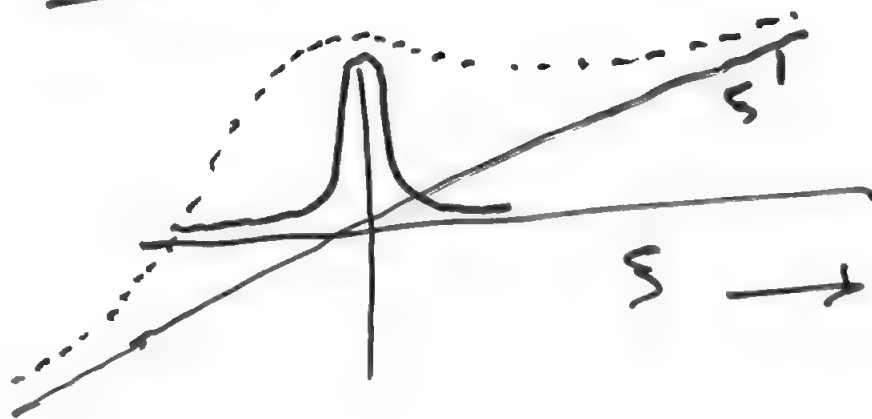
So transformed state in momentum space is

$$A'(k) = \tilde{F}_0'(k) \sqrt{w'(k)}$$

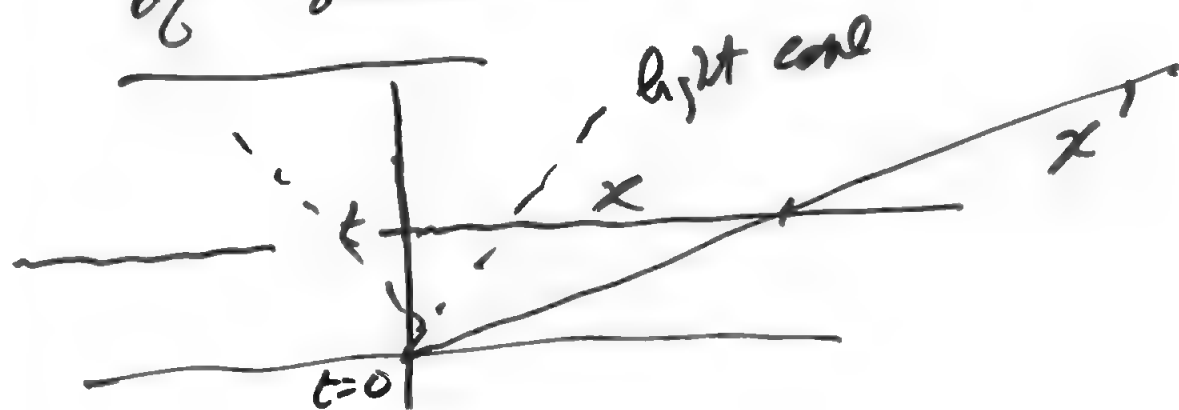
Hence

$$G(\xi') = (2\pi)^{-3/2} \int d^3k \sqrt{\frac{w'(k)}{w(k)}} \tilde{F}_0'(k) e^{i(k \cdot \xi')}$$

$$\neq F_0(\xi') \quad !!$$



⊆ How does time-evolution
relate to non-invariance
of boost?



We have $\varphi(x, t) = \varphi'(x', 0)$
 $= \varphi'(x'(x, t), 0)$

Hence at time t ,

$$G(\xi) = (2\pi)^{-9/2} \int d^3 \underline{k} \int d^3 \underline{k}' \int d^3 \underline{x}$$

$$e^{i \underline{k}' \cdot \underline{x}'(x, t)} \bar{f}_0(\underline{k}') \frac{\sqrt{w'(\underline{k}')} \cdot \sqrt{w(\underline{k})}}{w(\underline{k}')} \cdot e^{i \underline{k} \cdot (\xi - \underline{x})}$$

N.B. for t very small the x -integral
 can be extended. inside the light-cone
 with a contribution of order t^2 .

(16) (17)

For a Newton-Wigner state
for small t in 2-dimensional spacetime

$$G(\xi) \propto \delta(\xi) + t \cdot e^{-|\xi|} \cdot f(\xi)$$

where $f(\xi)$ is a complicated
function of ξ

Redhead QFT

Lecture II

Second Quantization and
Quantum Field Theory

①

De Broglie waves and the Klein-Gordon Equation

$$\psi \propto e^{-i\omega t + i\mathbf{p} \cdot \mathbf{x}}$$

where $\omega = \sqrt{1 + \mathbf{p}^2}$

$$\text{phase velocity} = \frac{\omega}{\mathbf{p}} = \frac{\sqrt{1 + \mathbf{p}^2}}{\mathbf{p}} > 1$$

(remember 1 corresponds to the velocity of light in vacuum)

But

$$\text{group velocity} = \frac{d\omega}{d\mathbf{p}} = \frac{\mathbf{p}}{\omega} < 1$$

$$\frac{\mathbf{p}}{\omega} = \frac{\text{momentum}}{\text{energy}} = \text{velocity of the particle}$$

Statistical weights for 2-particle system

$a \begin{Bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \end{Bmatrix}$	$b \begin{Bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \end{Bmatrix}$		
(i)	(ii)	(iii)	(iv)

In Quantum Stat. Mech. (iii) and (iv) are regarded as one and the same state for the purposes of assigning Statistical weights

Quantum Statistical Mechanics

Consider the 4 product wave functions

$$\begin{array}{ll} \psi_a(\underline{r}_1) \cdot \psi_a(\underline{r}_2) & \text{I} \\ \psi_a(\underline{r}_1) \cdot \psi_b(\underline{r}_2) & \text{II} \\ \psi_a(\underline{r}_1) \cdot \psi_b(\underline{r}_2) & \text{III} \\ \psi_a(\underline{r}_2) \cdot \psi_b(\underline{r}_1) & \text{IV} \end{array}$$

4-dimensional vector space equally well spanned by

$$\begin{array}{ll} \text{Symmetric} \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \psi_a(\underline{r}_1) \cdot \psi_a(\underline{r}_2) \\ \psi_a(\underline{r}_1) \cdot \psi_b(\underline{r}_2) + \psi_a(\underline{r}_2) \cdot \psi_b(\underline{r}_1) \\ \psi_b(\underline{r}_1) \cdot \psi_b(\underline{r}_2) \end{array} \right. & \begin{array}{l} \text{V} \\ \text{VI} \end{array} \\ \text{Antisymmetric} \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (\psi_a(\underline{r}_1) \cdot \psi_b(\underline{r}_2) - \psi_a(\underline{r}_2) \cdot \psi_b(\underline{r}_1)) \\ \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (\psi_a(\underline{r}_1) \cdot \psi_a(\underline{r}_2) - \psi_a(\underline{r}_2) \cdot \psi_a(\underline{r}_1)) \end{array} \right. & \begin{array}{l} \text{VII} \\ \text{VIII} \end{array} \end{array}$$

THE INDISTINGUISHABILITY PRINCIPLE (IP)

Two particles are indistinguishable if $\langle P\phi | Q | P\phi \rangle = \langle \phi | Q | \phi \rangle$

$$\forall Q, P, \phi$$

IP can be taken as a restriction on observables $\Rightarrow P$ commutes with Q , i.e. Q is a symmetric function of particles \rightarrow para statistics

on IP can be regarded as a restriction on states $\Rightarrow P|\phi\rangle = \pm |\phi\rangle$

So Bosons and Fermions only allowed

Identity of Indiscernibles (5)

$$\forall F (F(x) \leftrightarrow F(y)) \rightarrow x = y.$$

Query? What F's should be included under the scope of the 2nd order quantifier to force identity?

More generally, can the particular be reduced to the universal?

(9)

SECOND QUANTIZATION

(4)

Start with N -particle wave

Eq. for an assembly of Bosons.

State is specified by giving n_i

n_i of particles in i^{th} 1-particle state $|u_i\rangle$ (with energy E_i)

Then $E = \sum_i n_i E_i$

Compare with assembly of harmonic

oscillators

* $E = \sum_i (n_i + \frac{1}{2}) E_i$, if $\omega_i = E_i / \hbar$

But it is what we would get by subjecting the 1-particle w. Eq. to a second

(and so h.c. Eq.)

quantization

(7)

But 2nd quantization is more general than the N -particle Schrödinger Eq. because of the constraint

$$\sum_i n_i = N$$

FOCK SPACE

$$H = K_0 \oplus K_1 \oplus \dots \oplus K_N \oplus \dots$$

↓ vacuum

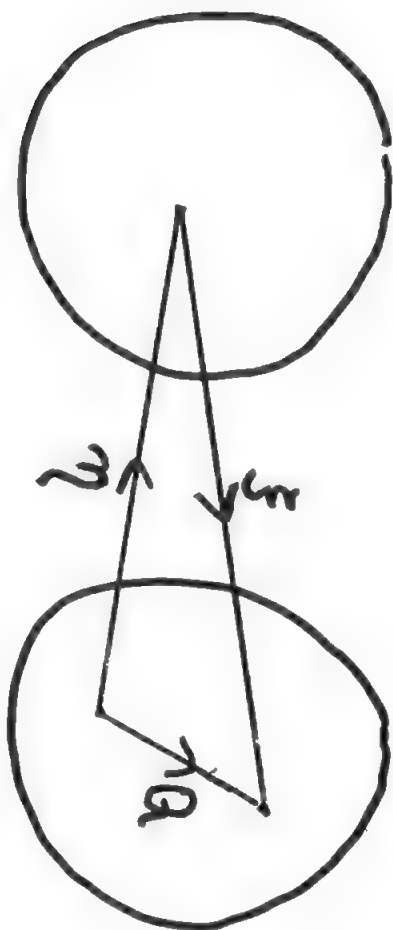
CREATION and ANNIHILATION OPERATORS

$$\left. \begin{aligned} a_i |n_i\rangle &= \sqrt{n_i} \cdot |n_i - 1\rangle \\ a_i^\dagger |n_i\rangle &= \sqrt{n_i + 1} \cdot |n_i + 1\rangle \end{aligned} \right\}$$

(28)

Schematically we factorize

$$Q = \xi \cdot \eta$$

 $\underline{K_{N-1}}$ $\underline{K_N}$

But $Q' = \xi + \eta$ would create and annihilate particles

(5a)

(6)

FIELD QUANTIZATION

(15)

Real Klein-Gordon field
 $(\nabla^2 - \frac{1}{c^2} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial t^2} + \mu^2) \psi = 0$

Energy Spectrum

$$E = \sum_{\mathbf{k}} n_{\mathbf{k}} (\hbar \omega_{\mathbf{k}}) + \text{const.}$$

$$\text{where const.} = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{\mathbf{k}} (\hbar \omega_{\mathbf{k}})$$

$$\text{and } \omega_{\mathbf{k}} = c \sqrt{\mu^2 + \mathbf{k}^2}$$

$n_{\mathbf{k}}$ are integral eigenvalues of
 the operator $N_{\mathbf{k}} = a_{\mathbf{k}}^{\dagger} a_{\mathbf{k}}$

where

$$a_{\mathbf{k}} |n_{\mathbf{k}}\rangle = \sqrt{n_{\mathbf{k}}} |n_{\mathbf{k}} - 1\rangle$$

$$\text{and } a_{\mathbf{k}}^{\dagger} |n_{\mathbf{k}}\rangle = \sqrt{n_{\mathbf{k}} + 1} |n_{\mathbf{k}} + 1\rangle$$

(10)

So Basic Result of QFT
is :

The Number of particles (quanta)
present with momentum
 $(\hbar \underline{k})$ and energy $(\hbar \omega_{\underline{k}})$
in the Particle Representation
is just the excitation Number
 $n_{\underline{k}}$ of the \underline{k} -mode

(5c)

(11)

(23)

THE VACUUM

This is the state for which all the n_k are zero.

It is the lowest energy state of the field.

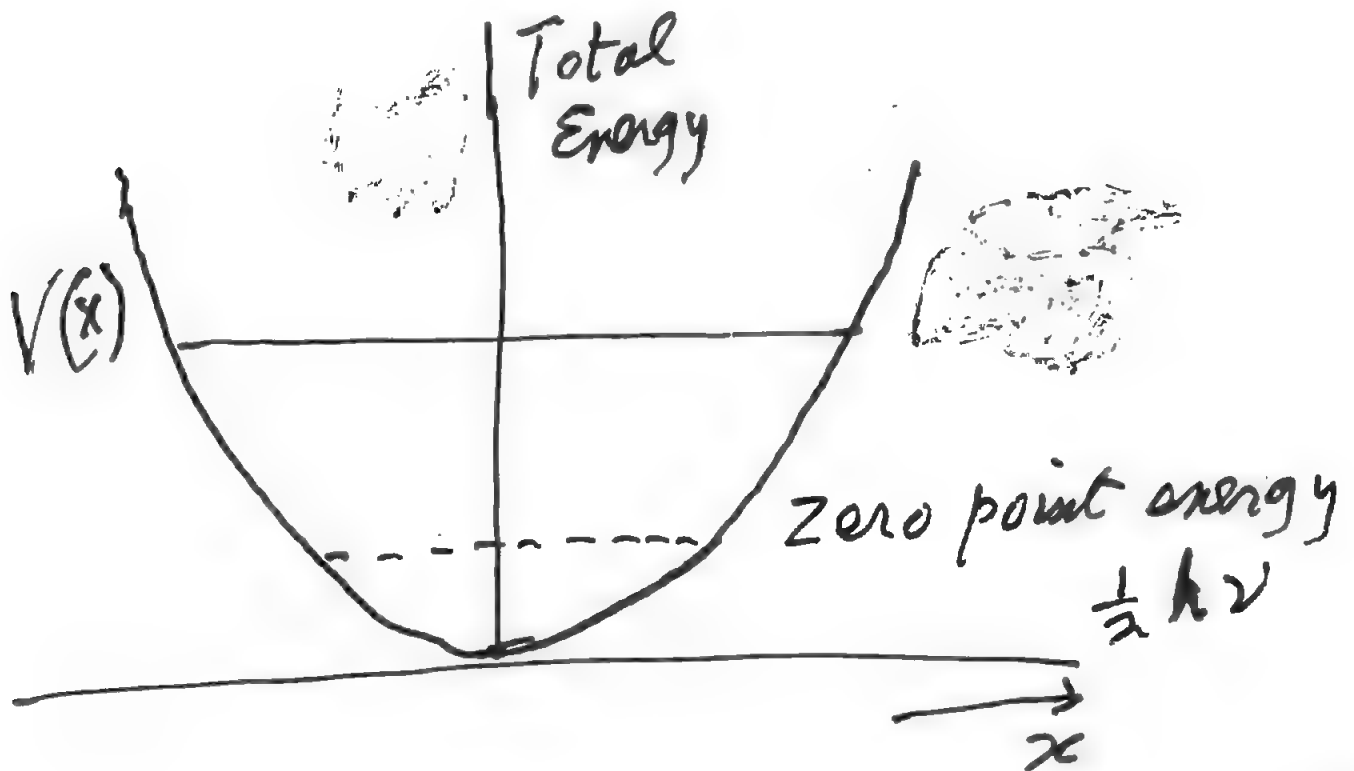
But the energy is not zero, since the field amplitude and other local quantities exhibit

Vacuum Fluctuations.

The non-vanishing energy of the vacuum is called the zero-point energy of the field.

The Harmonic Oscillator in Quantum Mechanics

12 1.



ν = frequency of oscillator

Heisenberg Uncertainty Principle

$$\Delta p \Delta x \sim h \quad \nwarrow \text{Planck's Constant}$$

FIELD QUANTIZATION contd

(13) I

Schrodinger Matter field $\psi(\underline{x})$
satisfies $\hat{H} \psi = -\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \nabla^2 \psi + V \psi$

Derive from Lagrangian density

$$L = i\hbar \psi^* \dot{\psi} - \frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \nabla \psi^* \cdot \nabla \psi - V(\underline{x}) \psi^* \psi$$

Canonically conjugate field is

$$\Pi(\underline{x}) = i\hbar \dot{\psi}^*$$

Impose quantization

$$[\psi(\underline{x}), \Pi(\underline{x}')] = i\hbar \delta^3(\underline{x} - \underline{x}')$$

Expand $\psi = \sum \alpha_R u_R(\underline{x}) e^{-iE_R t/\hbar}$
 $\psi^* = \sum \alpha_R^\dagger u_R^*(\underline{x}) e^{iE_R t/\hbar}$

u_R are
energy eigenstates
of Schrodinger field

$$\Rightarrow [\alpha_R, \alpha_R^\dagger] = \delta_{RR}$$

Hamiltonian density is
 $H = \Pi \dot{\psi} - L = -\frac{i\hbar}{2m} \nabla \Pi \cdot \nabla \psi - i\hbar V \psi^* \psi$

Total Hamiltonian $H = \int H d^3 \underline{x} = \sum \alpha_R^\dagger \alpha_R E_R$
 $\alpha_R \sim n_R = \alpha_R^\dagger \alpha_R$

Eigen values of N_R

$$N_R |n_R\rangle = n_R |n_R\rangle$$

What are possible values for n_R ?

Note $N_R (a_R |n_R\rangle) = (n_R - 1) a_R |n_R\rangle$

So $a_R |n_R\rangle = c_n |n_R - 1\rangle$

But $\langle n_R | N_R | n_R \rangle = \| a_R |n_R\rangle \|^2 \geq 0$

So N_R cannot have a negative eigenvalue, moreover $c_n = \sqrt{n}$

$\Rightarrow n_R$ is any integer ≥ 0 .

$$(a_R)^{n_R} |n_R\rangle = \sqrt{n_R!} |0_R\rangle$$

Similarly $a_R^+ |n_R\rangle = \sqrt{n_R + 1} |n_R + 1\rangle$

and $|n_R\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{n_R!}} (a_R^+)^{n_R} |0_R\rangle$

For relativistic fields

$$H = \sum (N_R + \frac{1}{2}) E_R$$

\uparrow zero point energy.
~~zero point energy~~

Eigenvalues of $N_R = a_R^\dagger a_R$
with Anticommutation Relations

Note
$$\begin{aligned} N_R^2 &= a_R^\dagger a_R a_R^\dagger a_R \\ &= a_R^\dagger a_R (1 - a_R a_R^\dagger) \\ &= N_R - a_R^\dagger a_R^2 a_R^\dagger \\ &= N_R, \quad \text{since } a_R^2 = 0 \end{aligned}$$

So eigenvalues N_R obey

$$N_R^2 = N_R,$$

$$\therefore N_R(N_R - 1) = 0 \quad \therefore N_R = 0 \text{ or } 1$$

Pauli Exclusion Principle

Summary

The Non-relativistic Schrodinger Equation (16)

$$\psi = V^{-1/2} \sum_{\mathbf{k}} a_{\mathbf{k}} e^{-i \omega_{\mathbf{k}} t} e^{i \mathbf{k} \cdot \mathbf{r}}$$

$$\omega_{\mathbf{k}} = \hbar^2 / 2m$$

$$H = \sum_{\mathbf{k}} \omega_{\mathbf{k}} a_{\mathbf{k}}^{\dagger} a_{\mathbf{k}} = \sum_{\mathbf{k}} \omega_{\mathbf{k}} N_{\mathbf{k}}$$

where $N_{\mathbf{k}} = a_{\mathbf{k}}^{\dagger} a_{\mathbf{k}}$.

has eigenvalues $N_{\mathbf{k}} = 0, 1, 2, 3, \dots$

$$\psi = e^{-i \sum_{\mathbf{k}} N_{\mathbf{k}} t}$$

Klein - Gordon Equation (complex)

$$\psi = V^{-1/2} \sum_{\mathbf{k}} [a_{\mathbf{k}} e^{-i \omega_{\mathbf{k}} t} e^{i \mathbf{k} \cdot \mathbf{r}} + b_{\mathbf{k}} e^{+i \omega_{\mathbf{k}} t} e^{-i \mathbf{k} \cdot \mathbf{r}}]$$

$$\omega_{\mathbf{k}} = \sqrt{1 + k^2}$$

$$H = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{\mathbf{k}} \omega_{\mathbf{k}} (a_{\mathbf{k}} a_{\mathbf{k}}^{\dagger} + a_{\mathbf{k}}^{\dagger} a_{\mathbf{k}} + b_{\mathbf{k}}^{\dagger} b_{\mathbf{k}} + b_{\mathbf{k}} b_{\mathbf{k}}^{\dagger})$$

$$= \sum_{\mathbf{k}} \omega_{\mathbf{k}} (N_{\mathbf{k}}^{+} + N_{\mathbf{k}}^{-}) + \sum_{\mathbf{k}} \omega_{\mathbf{k}}$$

where $N_{\mathbf{k}}^{+} = a_{\mathbf{k}}^{\dagger} a_{\mathbf{k}}$, $N_{\mathbf{k}}^{-} = b_{\mathbf{k}}^{\dagger} b_{\mathbf{k}}$.

$$\psi = e^{-i \sum_{\mathbf{k}} (N_{\mathbf{k}}^{+} - N_{\mathbf{k}}^{-}) t}$$

Dirac Equation

$$\psi = \sum_{R, S} \left[d_R u(R, S) e^{-i W_R t} e^{i \mathbf{k} \cdot \mathbf{x}} + b_R^\dagger v(R, S) e^{i W_R t} e^{-i \mathbf{k} \cdot \mathbf{x}} \right]$$

$$H = \sum_R W_R (d_R^\dagger d_R - b_R b_R^\dagger)$$

$$Q = e \sum_R (d_R^\dagger d_R + b_R b_R^\dagger)$$

Using anti commutation relations

$$H \rightarrow \sum_R W_R (N_R^+ + N_R^-) = \sum_R W_R$$

$$Q \rightarrow e \sum_R (N_R^+ + N_R^-) + e \sum_R 1$$

Now redetine

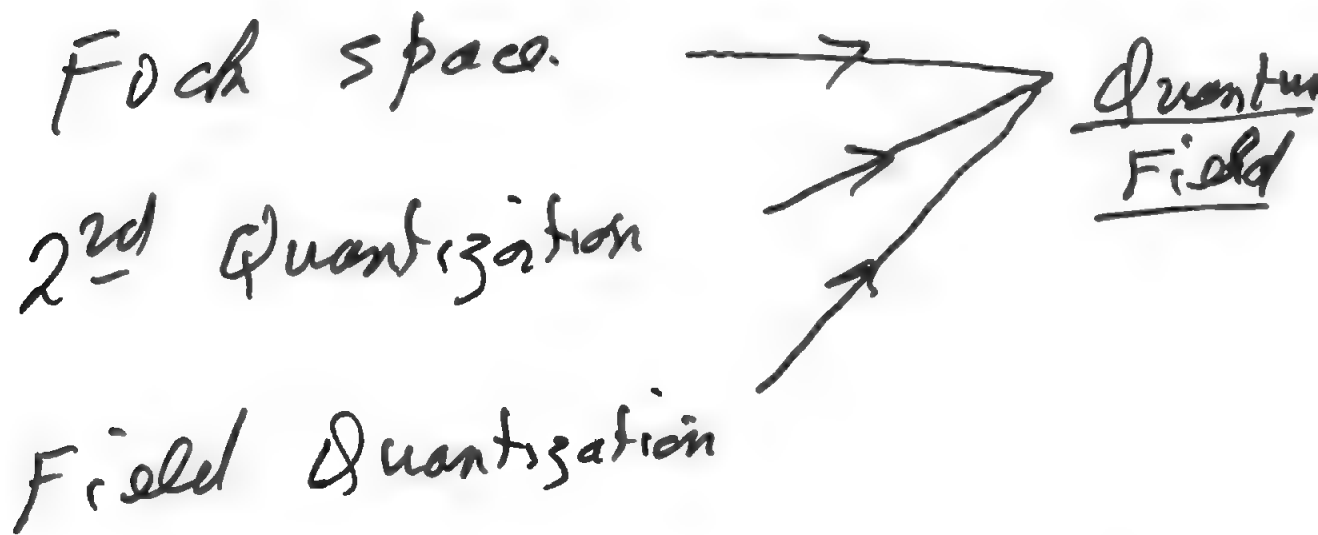
$$H \rightarrow \sum_R W_R (N_R^+ + N_R^-)$$

$$Q \rightarrow e \sum_R (N_R^+ - N_R^-)$$

Query? What would commutation relations look like for the Dirac field?

Would we have $[b_R, b_R^\dagger] = 1$ (Weyssberg)
 or $[b_R, b_R^\dagger] = -1$ (Enayon, else!)

Three Routes to the Quantum Field



$$\psi = V^{-\frac{1}{2}} \sum_{\mathbf{k}} \hat{a}_{\mathbf{k}} e^{i(\omega_{\mathbf{k}} t - \mathbf{k} \cdot \mathbf{x})}$$

where $\hat{a}_{\mathbf{k}}$ is an operator

Inequivalent Representations

Consider the case of fermions:
The basis states in terms of
occupation numbers can be
represented as a sequence mapping
a denumerable set of 1-particle
states into occupation numbers 0 or 1.

We can think of this sequence as
an infinite binary fraction, such
as $0.0101101110 \dots$

Fock space is the space spanned
by all terminating binary fractions
this is a denumerable set and
hence gives rise to a separable
Hilbert space.

But we can also consider a space
spanned by all binary fractions,
including nonterminating ones. This is
a nonseparable space which supports
inequivalent representations of anti-commutation
- Pauli.

Redwood QFT

Lecture III

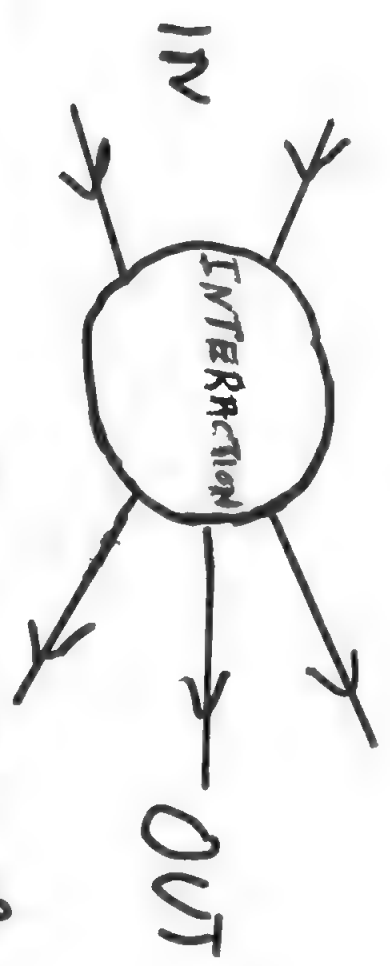
Feynman Diagrams and

Virtual Particles

①

SCATTERING THEORY

②4



The transition amplitude from the initial IN state to a final OUT state defines the S-matrix

$$\langle OUT | S | IN \rangle$$

(25)

(2)

$$if \quad |\psi(t)\rangle = \sum_n c_n(t) |\phi_n\rangle$$

where $|\phi_n\rangle$ are eigenstates

of H_0 , and

$$|\psi(-\infty)\rangle = |1\rangle$$

Then the transition amplitude

to the state $|\phi_n\rangle$

is given by $c_n(\infty)$.

But compare Haag's Theorem:

$\psi(t)$ and ϕ_n belong to inequivalent

representations! So also expansions

in mathematical sense

is orthogonal to all the ϕ_n .

($\psi(t)$ for $t \rightarrow \infty$)

But we will press on!

Integral equation for Green's function

Schrodinger equation $(i\hbar \frac{\partial}{\partial t} - H_0)\psi = 0$
Solved by

$$K_0 = (i\hbar \frac{\partial}{\partial t} - H_0)^{-1}$$

$$(\int_0 (i\hbar \frac{\partial}{\partial t} - H_0) K_0 = 1)$$

For inhomogeneous equation
 $(i\hbar \frac{\partial}{\partial t} - H_0)\psi = F$

Soln is $\psi = K_0 F$ - but also

solves homogeneous eqn with inhomogeneous boundary conditions $\psi(2) = K_0(2,1)\psi$

with interaction $H = H_0 + V$

Green's function is $K = (i\hbar \frac{\partial}{\partial t} - H)^{-1}$

using $A^{-1} = B^{-1} + B^{-1}(B-A)A^{-1}$

$\Rightarrow K = K_0 + K_0 V K$ Integral equation.

Expand

$$\psi(x) = \sum_n C_n \phi_n(x_2) e^{-iE_n(t_2 - t_1)}$$

But for $t_2 = t_1$,

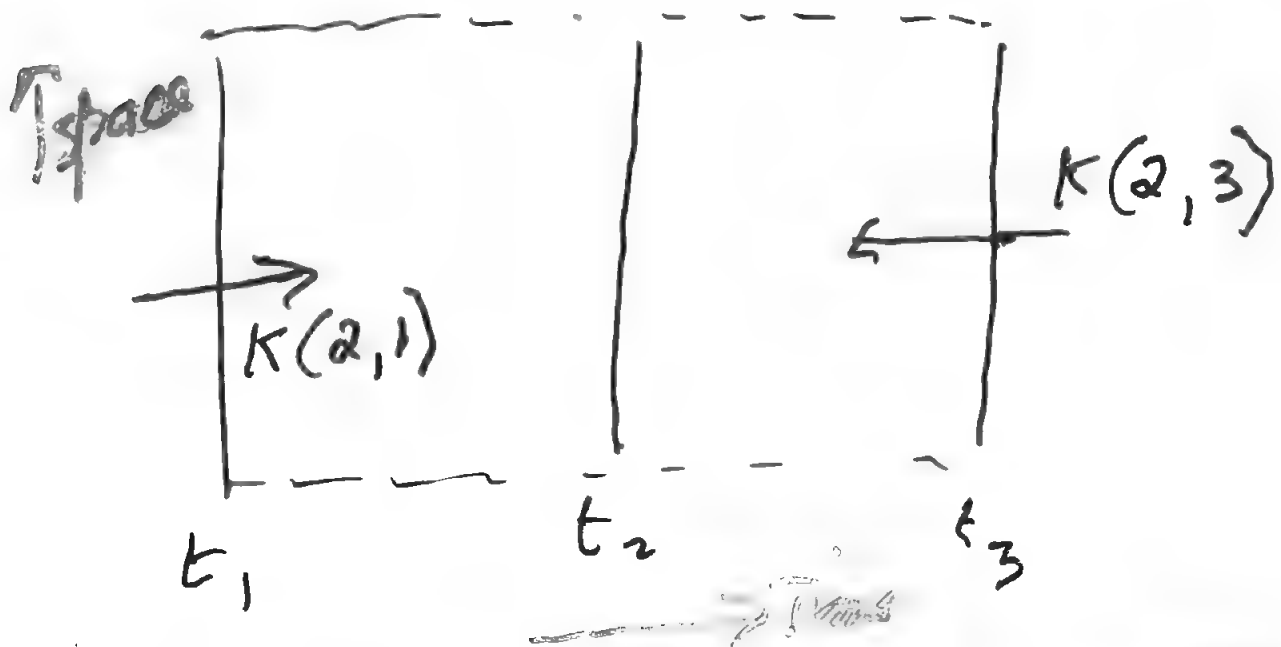
$$\psi(x) \rightarrow \psi(x_1) = \sum_n C_n \phi_n(x_1)$$

$$\text{So } C_n = \int \psi(x_1) \phi_n^*(x_1) dx_1$$

Hence.

$$\psi(x) = \int \left[\sum_n \phi_n^*(x_1) \phi_n(x_2) e^{-iE_n(t_2 - t_1)} \right] \psi(x_1) dx_1$$

But $[]$ is not a Green's function since it satisfies homogeneous S. E.



For Green's theorem to apply
 we need a closed
 4-dimensional surface
 such as spatial slices
 at t_1 and t_3 , and time-like
 boundary at spatial infinity
 We define K so that $K(2,3) = 0$
 - it cannot propagate backwards in
 time

(6)

(27)

$$\langle 2 | K_0 | 1 \rangle \stackrel{\text{DF}}{=} K_0(a, 1)$$

$$= \sum_n \phi_n^*(x_1) \phi_n(x_2) e^{-i/\hbar E_n (t_2 - t_1)} \theta(t_2 - t_1)$$

where $\theta(t) = \begin{cases} 1, & t > 0 \\ 0, & t < 0 \end{cases}$

(7)

Feynman Diagrams

(26)

$$K = K_0 + K_0 V K$$

$$\Rightarrow (1 - K_0 V) K = K_0$$

$$\text{So } K = (1 - K_0 V)^{-1} K_0$$

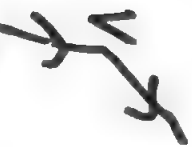
$$= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (K_0 V)^n \cdot K_0$$

$$= K_0 + \underline{K_0 V K_0} + \underline{K_0 V K_0 V K_0}$$

No Scattering



Single Scattering



Double Scattering



FEYNMAN PROPAGATOR (8)

$$K(2,1) = \sum_{E_n > 0, E_n < 0} \phi_n^*(1) \phi_n(2) e^{-i/\hbar E_n (t_2 - t_1)} + \theta(t_2 - t_1)$$

$$- \sum_{E_n < 0} \phi_n^*(1) \phi_n(2) e^{-i/\hbar E_n (t_2 - t_1)}$$

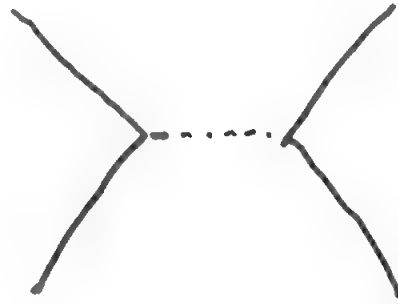
$$= \begin{cases} \sum_{E_n > 0} \dots & \text{for } t_2 > t_1 \\ \sum_{E_n < 0} \dots & \text{for } t_2 < t_1 \end{cases}$$

(9)

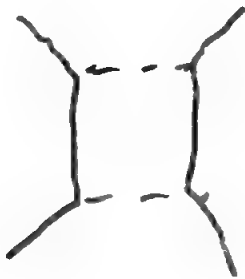
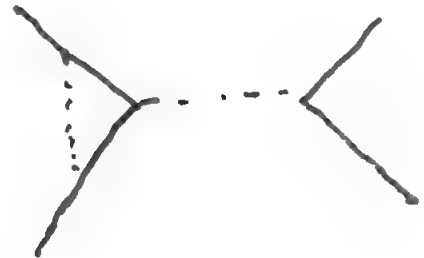
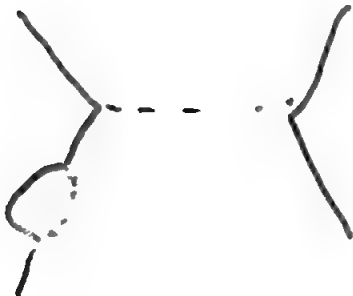
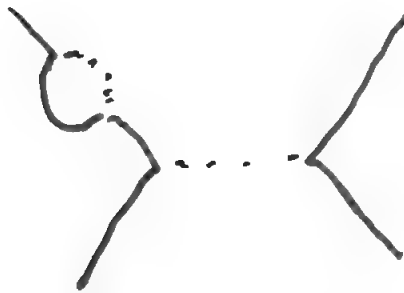
EXAMPLES of FEYNMAN DIAGRAMS

Electron-electron scattering

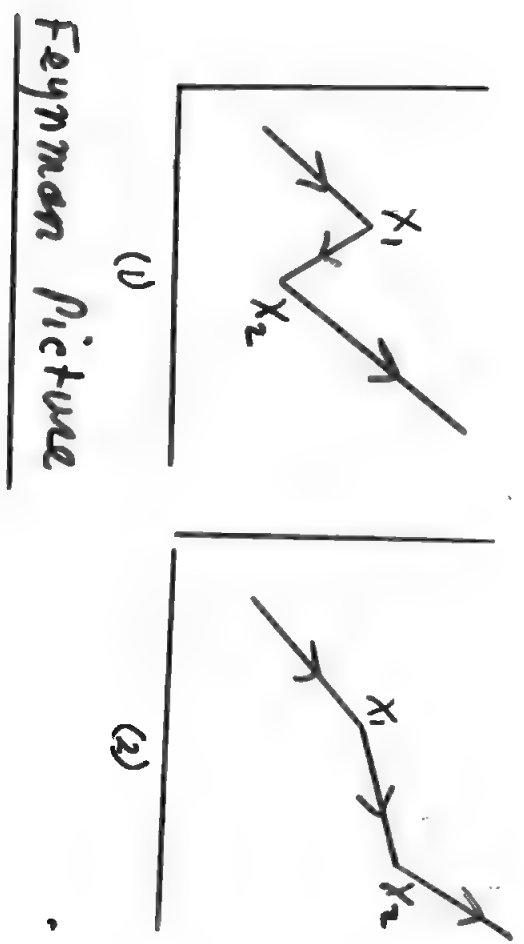
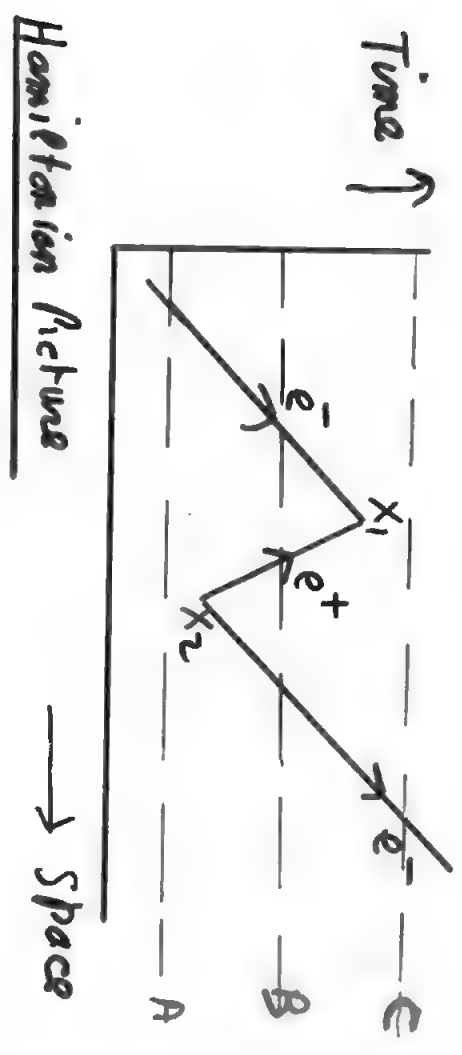
2nd order



4th order

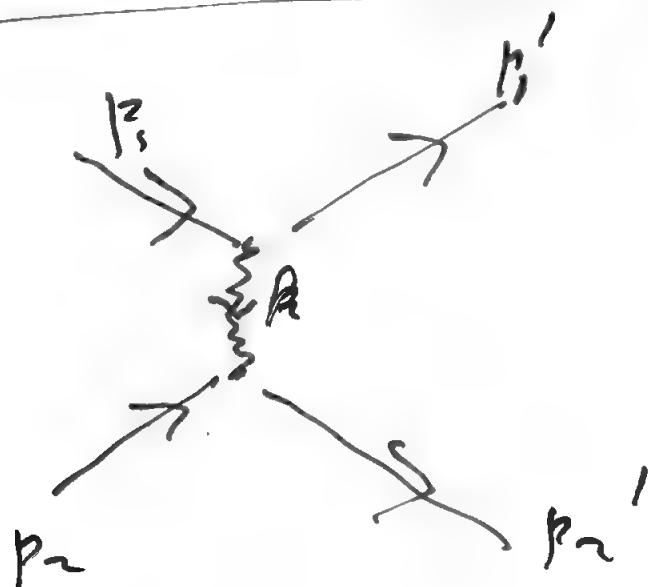


Feynman Diagrams



Feynman Picture

VIRTUAL PARTICLES AND CONSERVATION LAWS



4-vectors
 p_1, p_1', p_2, p_2'

Conservation at each vertex gives

$$k = p_1 - p_1' = p_2' - p_2$$

$$\therefore p_1' + p_2' = p_1 + p_2$$

overall conservation

But $k^2 = (p_1 - p_1')^2 = p_1^2 + p_1'^2 - 2 p_1 \cdot p_1'$

$$= 2m^2 - 2(E^2 - p^2 \cos \theta)$$

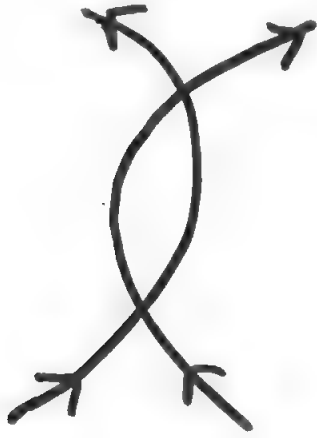
in C.M. frame
 $\theta =$ scattering angle

$$= -2p^2(1 - \cos \theta)$$

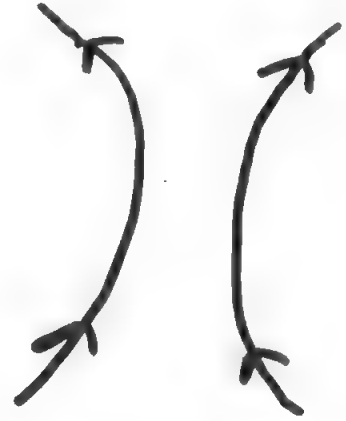
$$= -4p^2 \sin^2 \frac{1}{2} \theta$$

But for a real photon $k^2 = 0 !!$

12 1
Does Exchange of Virtual
Particles always produce
Repulsion?



Attraction

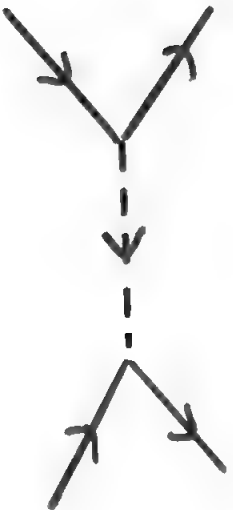


Repulsion

13

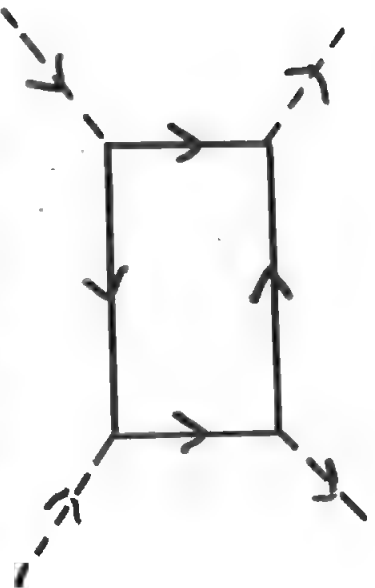
MATTER AND FORCE

Compare



--- photon
— electron

with



So Which is the 'matter' particle and
which is the 'force' particle?

(4)

Classical Renormalization

(3)

Eg. of motion for an electron of radius R_0 is : —

$$m \ddot{R} = K^{(0)} + K^{(1)} + \dots$$

where $K^{(0)} = -\beta \cdot \frac{e^2}{R_0 c^2} \ddot{R}$, $\beta \sim 1$

$$K^{(1)} = \frac{2}{3} \frac{e^2}{c^3} \cdot \ddot{R} \quad \text{etc}$$

We rewrite this as

$$m' \ddot{R} = K^{(1)} + O(R_0)$$

where $m' = m + \beta \cdot \frac{e^2}{R_0 c^2}$

We identify m' with experimental mass and then let $R_0 \rightarrow 0$.

Three Views on Renormalization

1. Cutoffs
2. Real infinities
approach
3. Mask of Ignorance.

Redhead QFT

Lecture IV

Vacuum Fluctuations

WHAT IS THE VACUUM?

Remove all the particles, electrons, photons etc in the Universe, and you would be left with the vacuum.

Queries

- 1.) are you left with nothing,
e.g. no space or time?
- 2.) Does it make sense to talk of emptying spacetime of gravitation? - cp vacuum solns of Einstein field eqs. in GR
- 3.) Could the notion of the vacuum depend on the state of motion of the observer? - cp Unruh Effect

We shall confine ourselves to special Relativity, but already there are many surprises!

MORE AID ABOUT NOTHING

~~(Redhead - Found. Phys. (1985) 123)~~

Theorem 1. Any local event that can happen in some arbitrary state of a field can also happen in the vacuum.

(Hollander & Knowlton (1970))

Theorem 2 In the vacuum any measurement located at x is maximally correlated with some simultaneous measurement located at y , however far apart x and y may be.

Theorem 3 Every local measurement is infinitely ambiguous, i.e. leaves infinitely many questions unanswered


Quantum Field Theory

③ 4

Nonrelativistic case : Quantizing the Schrödinger field

Particles = quantized excitations of the field

Vacuum  no excitation

 1 particle of definite momentum

 2 Particles

Localized Excitations

 1 Particle

 2 particles

$$N = \int N(x) d^3x \quad N_V = \int_V N(x) d^3x$$

$$[N_V, N_{V'}] = 0 \text{ for disjoint } V \supset V'$$

$$\therefore N=0 \Rightarrow N_V=0 \text{ for any subvolume } V.$$

So global vacuum \Rightarrow local vacuum (4)

In relativistic QFT this is not true

$$[N_V, N_{V'}] \neq 0 \text{ for disjoint } V, V'$$

So $N=0 \Rightarrow N_V=0$.

Two reactions to this:

(1) Virtual Particles:

exist for times $\sim \hbar/mc^2$

i.e. travel at most

a distance $\sim \hbar/mc$

globally vacuum \Rightarrow no real particles

But locally lots of virtual particles

objections: (a) N_V not an observable
- violates microcausality

(b) Needs interacting fields

we can try Newton-Wigner number densities, but these do not describe 'objectively' localized particles

So the better approach is

(2) Vacuum fluctuations:
Work with charge densities, energy densities etc

$$\text{Then } [Q_V, Q_{V'}] = 0$$

So micro causality satisfied
Vacuum is state of minimum total energy.

\Rightarrow local observables such as Q_V fluctuate

For E.M. field, field strengths fluctuate in vacuum - explain:
spontaneous emission of radiation
Compton effect, Lamb shift,
anomalous magnetic moment of electron etc

ALGEBRAIC QUANTUM ⑥

FIELD THEORY

$$O \mapsto R(O)$$

\hookrightarrow bounded
open set
in spacetime

Von Neumann
algebra of
observables

R acts on Hilbert space \mathcal{H}

$$R(O + \underline{a}) = U(\underline{a}) R(O) U^*(\underline{a})$$

\hookrightarrow representation of
translation $\underline{x} \rightarrow \underline{x} + \underline{a}$

For time-like translations $U(\underline{a})$ is
exponentiated to obtain a Hamiltonian
operator which is non-negative.

Isotony For any two bounded open
sets O_1, O_2 , $O_1 \subseteq O_2 \Rightarrow R(O_1) \subseteq R(O_2)$

Locality If O_1 and O_2 are space-like
related, then $\forall A_1 \in R(O_1), \forall A_2 \in R(O_2)$
 $[A_1, A_2] = 0$

211
The global algebra R is the smallest von N. algebra containing all the local algebras. We assume that \mathcal{L}_R is the representation of R is irreducible and generated by the translates of $R(0)$ for any 0 .

The Vacuum Ω is the unique state which is invariant under all translations.

The Reeh-Schlieder Theorem
 Ω is cyclic with respect to \mathcal{H} for any $R(0)$

This just means $\{A\Omega : A \in R(0)\}$ is dense in \mathcal{H} .

Corollary

Ω is a separating vector for $R(0)$

This just means

$$\forall A \in R(0), A\Omega = 0 \Rightarrow A = 0.$$

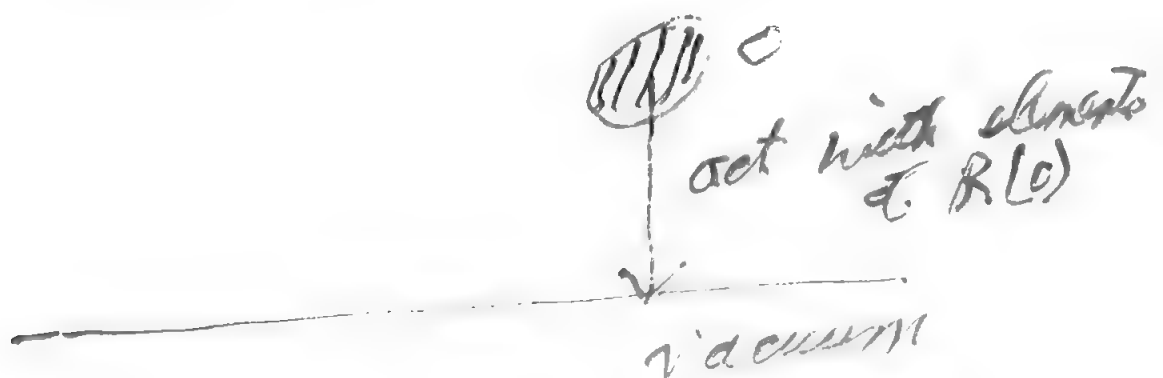
I am now going to prove the R-S theorem and its corollary for a very simple analogue of a field theory, in which spacetime collapses to two points and the von N. algebras are just the algebras of operators on a 2-dimensional Hilbert space. This is just the familiar 2 spin $1/2$ particle system, and for the analogue of the vacuum we shall take initially $\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(\uparrow + \downarrow)$

The Reeh-Schlieder Theorem

(9) 19

Every bounded region \mathcal{O} of spacetime is associated with an algebra of local observables $R(\mathcal{O})$.

The R-S theorem says that any state of the field can be generated by acting on the vacuum state with members of any $R(\mathcal{O})$.



produces, we might expect, a local excitation.

How could we generate an arbitrarily excitation, such as?



The Baby Reeh-Schlieder Theorem

Collapse spacetime to two points!



$$\mathcal{H} = \mathcal{H}_1 \otimes \mathcal{H}_2$$

Then $\overline{\mathcal{I}}_{\text{singlet}}$ is cyclic for R_1 (or R_2) w.r.t. \mathcal{H}

(11) 11

$$|\Psi_{\text{singlet}}\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (|\sigma_{1z}=+1\rangle \otimes |\sigma_{2z}=-1\rangle - |\sigma_{1z}=-1\rangle \otimes |\sigma_{2z}=+1\rangle)$$

Then $\forall \phi \in \mathcal{H}_1 \otimes \mathcal{H}_2$, $\exists A_1 \in \mathcal{R}_1$ s.t.

$$|\phi\rangle = A_1 |\Psi_{\text{singlet}}\rangle$$

Proof: By inspection.

$$\begin{aligned} \forall |\phi\rangle = & \alpha |\sigma_{1z}=+1\rangle \otimes |\sigma_{2z}=-1\rangle \\ & + \beta |\sigma_{1z}=-1\rangle \otimes |\sigma_{2z}=-1\rangle \\ & + \gamma |\sigma_{1z}=-1\rangle \otimes |\sigma_{2z}=+1\rangle \\ & + \delta |\sigma_{1z}=+1\rangle \otimes |\sigma_{2z}=+1\rangle \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{Then } A_1 = \alpha P_1^+ + \beta Q_1 P_1^+ + \gamma P_1^- + \delta Q_1 P_1^-$$

where P_1^\pm projects the state $|\sigma_{1z}=\pm 1\rangle$
and Q_1 rotates spin 1 thro' 180° .

Similarly $\forall \phi \in \mathcal{H}_1 \otimes \mathcal{H}_2$, $\exists A_2 \in \mathcal{R}_2$ s.t.
 $|\phi\rangle = A_2 |\Psi_{\text{singlet}}\rangle$

Corollary

(12) (11)

$$A_1 |\Psi_{\text{singlet}}\rangle = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow A_1 = 0$$

Proof:

By the baby R-S theorem
 $\forall \phi \in \mathcal{H}_1 \otimes \mathcal{H}_2$, we can write

$$|\phi\rangle = A_2 |\Psi_{\text{singlet}}\rangle, \text{ so}$$

$$\begin{aligned} A_1 |\phi\rangle &= A_1 A_2 |\Psi_{\text{singlet}}\rangle \\ &= A_2 A_1 |\Psi_{\text{singlet}}\rangle \\ &= 0 \end{aligned}$$

Since $|\phi\rangle$ is any vector in $\mathcal{H}_1 \otimes \mathcal{H}_2$,
it follows that $A_1 = 0$, (Q.E.D.)

So $|\Psi_{\text{singlet}}\rangle$ is a cyclic vector on
a separating vector for R_1 (and
similarly for R_2).

We now prove a baby version
of Theorem 1

(13) 12

Define $p = \text{Prob}^{\Psi_{\text{singlet}}} (P_i \in R_i = 1)$
Projector.

$$\text{then } p = \|\text{Proj}_i |\Psi_{\text{singlet}}\rangle\|^2$$

$$\text{So } p = 0 \Rightarrow \text{Proj}_i |\Psi_{\text{singlet}}\rangle = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow P_i = 0 \text{ (by R-S)}$$

$$\therefore P_i \neq 0 \Rightarrow p \neq 0. \quad \text{QED.}$$

We now turn to a baby version
of Theorem 2

We want to prove.

$$\forall P_2, \exists P_1 \text{ s.t. } \langle P_1 P_2 \rangle_{\Psi_{\text{singlet}}} \\ = \langle P_1 \rangle_{\Psi_{\text{singlet}}}$$

$$\left(\text{i.e. } \text{Prob}^{\Psi_{\text{singlet}}} (P_2 = 1 / P_1 = 1) = 1 \right)$$

Proof Write $\mathbb{I}_{\text{singlet}} = \mathbb{I}_S$

(14) 13

Write $|\phi\rangle = \mathbb{P}_2 |\psi_S\rangle / \|\mathbb{P}_2 |\psi_S\rangle\|$

Then by construction

$$\langle \mathbb{P}_2 \rangle_\phi = 1 \quad \text{--- (1)}$$

But, by the baby R-S theorem

$$|\phi\rangle = C_1 |\psi_S\rangle \quad \text{--- (2)}$$

where C_1 is some operator on \mathcal{H}_1 ,
(extended to $\mathcal{H}_1 \otimes \mathcal{H}_2$)

Substituting (2) in (1) gives

$$\langle \psi_S | Q_1 \mathbb{P}_2 | \psi_S \rangle = 1 \quad \text{--- (3)}$$

where $Q_1 = C_1^* C_1$, is a positive Hermitian operator on \mathcal{H}_1 .

So we can expand.

$$Q_1 = \lambda_1 \mathbb{P}_1 + \lambda'_1 \mathbb{P}'_1 \quad \text{--- (4)}$$

where λ_1, λ'_1 are the non-negative real eigenvalues of Q_1 , and $\mathbb{P}_1, \mathbb{P}'_1$ are orthogonal projections in \mathcal{H}_1 .

Substituting (4) in (3) yields

$$\frac{w_1 \langle \Gamma_1, \rho_2 \rangle_{\mathcal{H}_S}}{\langle \Gamma_1 \rangle_{\mathcal{H}_S}} + \frac{w_2 \langle \Gamma_1', \rho_2 \rangle_{\mathcal{H}_S}}{\langle \Gamma_1' \rangle_{\mathcal{H}_S}} = 1 \quad \dots (5)$$

where

$$w_1 = \lambda_1 \langle \Gamma_1 \rangle_{\mathcal{H}_S}$$

$$w_2 = \lambda_1' \langle \Gamma_1' \rangle_{\mathcal{H}_S}$$

But we know

$$\begin{aligned} \langle Q \rangle_{\mathcal{H}_S} &= \| | \zeta, 1 \rangle_{\mathcal{H}_S} \|^2 \\ &= \| | \phi \rangle \|^2 = 1 \end{aligned}$$

$$\therefore w_1 + w_2 = 1 \quad \dots (6)$$

with $w_1 \geq 0, w_2 \geq 0$.

Hence LHS (5) $\leq \max \left(\frac{\langle \Gamma_1, \rho_2 \rangle_{\mathcal{H}_S}}{\langle \Gamma_1 \rangle_{\mathcal{H}_S}}, \frac{\langle \Gamma_1', \rho_2 \rangle_{\mathcal{H}_S}}{\langle \Gamma_1' \rangle_{\mathcal{H}_S}} \right)$
 and (5) can only be satisfied if Γ_1 or Γ_1' (or both) satisfy the condition for Theorem 2 (Q.E.D.).

Now Theorems 1 and 2 are trivially true for Ψ_{singlet} . (16) (15)

Theorem 1 just says, all spin components have non-vanishing probability for results ± 1 on either particle (indeed for Ψ_{singlet} all the probabilities are equal to $1/2$!)

while Theorem 2 says all spin components on one particle are maximally correlated with spin components on the other particle. (indeed there are just the mirror-image correlations of Ψ_{singlet} !)

But the proofs of these well-known results for Ψ_{singlet} only used the R-S theorem, so they can be lifted straight back to QFT, with the vacuum replacing Ψ_{singlet} !

In the QFT case, Theorem 2
can be formulated more accurately
as:

For any two space-like separated
bounded open regions O_1 and O_2
and $\forall \varepsilon > 0$, $\forall P_2 \in R(O_2)$

$\exists P_1 \in R(O_1)$ s.t.

$$\langle P_1, P_2 \rangle_\Omega > (1 - \varepsilon) \langle P_1 \rangle_\Omega$$

We can also express the maximality
of the correlations specified in Theorem
in terms of correlation coefficients

For any two projectors P_1 and P_2 belonging
to $R(O_1)$ and $R(O_2)$ respectively, we have

$$C(P_1, P_2) = \frac{\langle P_1, P_2 \rangle - \langle P_1 \rangle \cdot \langle P_2 \rangle}{[\langle P_1 \rangle \cdot (1 - \langle P_1 \rangle) \cdot \langle P_2 \rangle \cdot (1 - \langle P_2 \rangle)]}$$

So, for fixed $\langle P_1 \rangle, \langle P_2 \rangle$ (18) ~~17~~
 the maximum value of $C(P_1, P_2)$
 is given by

$$C^{\max}(P_1, P_2) = \left[\frac{\langle P_1 \rangle \cdot (1 - \langle P_2 \rangle)}{\langle P_2 \rangle \cdot (1 - \langle P_1 \rangle)} \right]^{1/2} \quad (1)$$

This only attains the value 1
 when $\langle P_1 \rangle = \langle P_2 \rangle$

This condition is satisfied for
 $[2_{\text{singlet}}]$, but Theorem 2 in
 no way depends on this condition.
 We now want to compare (1)
 with the well-known Fredenhagen
bound on correlation coefficients
 (Fredenhagen 1985).

This reads

$$C(P_1, P_2) \leq e^{-m\ell} \sqrt{(1 - \langle P_1 \rangle_{\mathcal{R}}) \cdot (1 - \langle P_2 \rangle_{\mathcal{R}})}$$

where m is mass-gap, and ℓ the minimum
 Lorentz distance between \mathcal{O}_1 and \mathcal{O}_2

Comparing (1) and (2),
consistency requires

$$\langle P_1 \rangle_R \leq \frac{e^{-2ml} \langle P_2 \rangle_R}{(1 - \langle P_2 \rangle_R)^2} \dots (3)$$

i.e. for a fixed value of $\langle P_2 \rangle_R$,
the maximally correlated P_1
must have a probability of
occurring that falls off
exponentially with the distance
between O_1 and O_2 .

This result shows how difficult
it would be to observe the
long-range correlations in the
vacuum. But, of course, it
does not show that they don't
exist!

(24) 19

Turning to Theorem 3, the ambiguity referred to arises in the $\mathcal{F}_{\text{support}}$ case from the fact that the local projectors are all two-dimensional (i.e. of the form $P_i \otimes I_n$ etc)

In QFT the technical formulation of Theorem 3 is:

$\forall P \in \mathcal{R}(O)$, P is infinite-dimensional

Proof. By Driessler's Theorem (1975) the Von N. algebra associated with an unbounded wedge in spacetime is a type III factor.

But every bounded open region is contained in some wedge.

So, by isotony, $\mathcal{R}(O)$ is always a sub-algebra of a type III factor. But in a type III factor all the projectors are infinite-dimensional.

Hence all the projectors in $\mathcal{R}(0)$ are infinite-dimensional (2)
Q.E.D.

N.B. This result does not demonstrate that every local algebra is type III — this still remains an open question.

As a corollary of Theorem 3 we can state:

it is never a local question to ask

"Are we in the vacuum state or indeed in an N -particle state (i.e. orthogonal to the vacuum)?"

This raises the fundamental question:

What do (local) particle detectors detect?

The answer is they cannot strictly speaking be detecting particles. They detect certain types of field excitation, which for all practical purposes may resemble particles.

But in reality (if you will excuse the phrase!) QFT is not a theory of particles, but a theory of fields and their local excitations, and that is all there is to it.

Question:

Are the vacuum fluctuations really there, if we don't observe them by some sort of measurement?

This is a generic question in the philosophy of quantum mechanics, to which we now turn.

Theorem 4

the Bell inequality is violated
by vacuum fluctuations in
space like separated regions

1980

1980 1980

Interpretations of QM

Realism or Antirealism for
R A possessed value.

Locality Principles

LOC_R : Prohibits sharp \rightarrow sharp transition initiated at space-like separation

LOC_A : Prohibits unsharp \rightarrow sharp transition initiated at space-like separation.

EPR (1935) $A + LOC_A \Rightarrow R \Rightarrow \sim A$
 $\therefore A \Rightarrow \sim LOC_A$

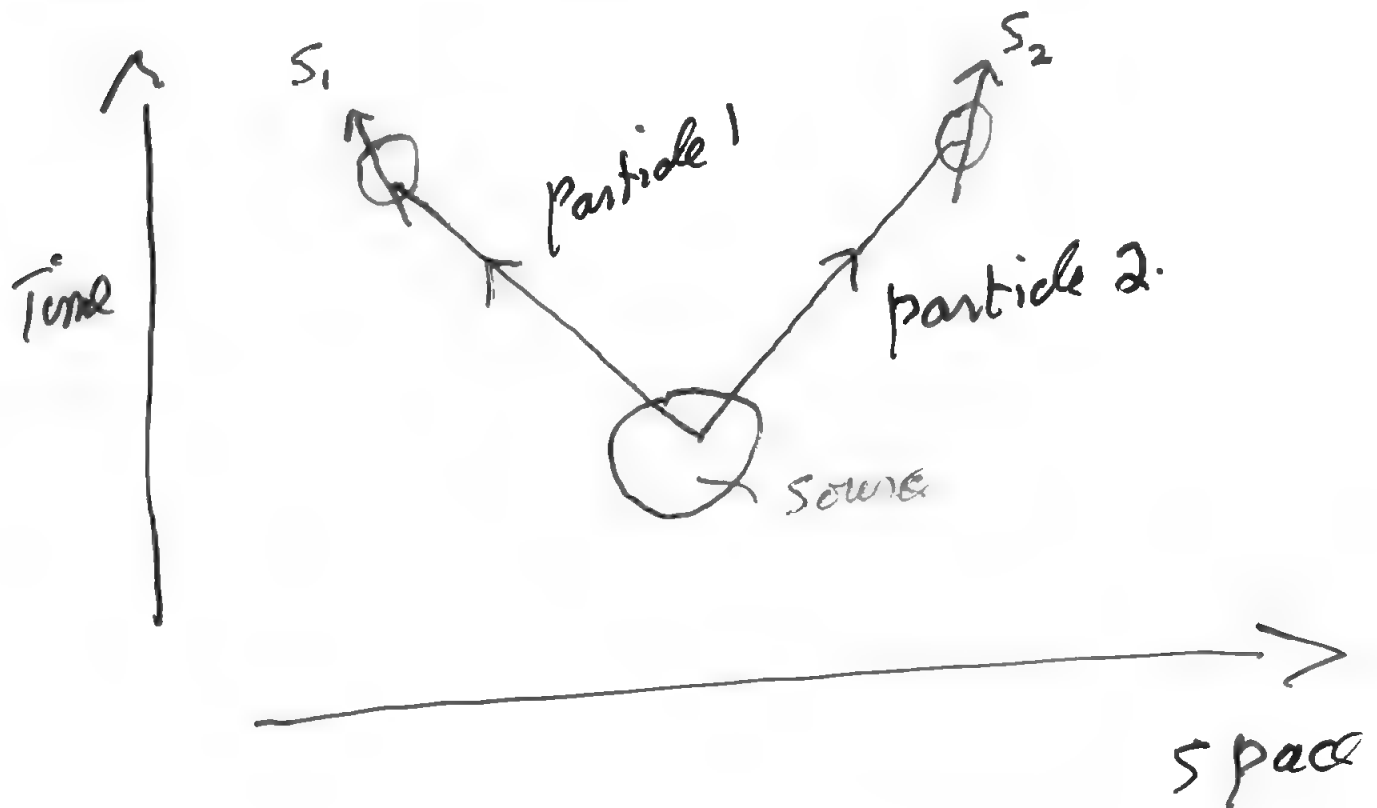
Bell (1964) $R + LOC_R \Rightarrow$ Bell Inequality (B.I.)

$\therefore R \Rightarrow (\sim LOC_R) \vee B.I.$

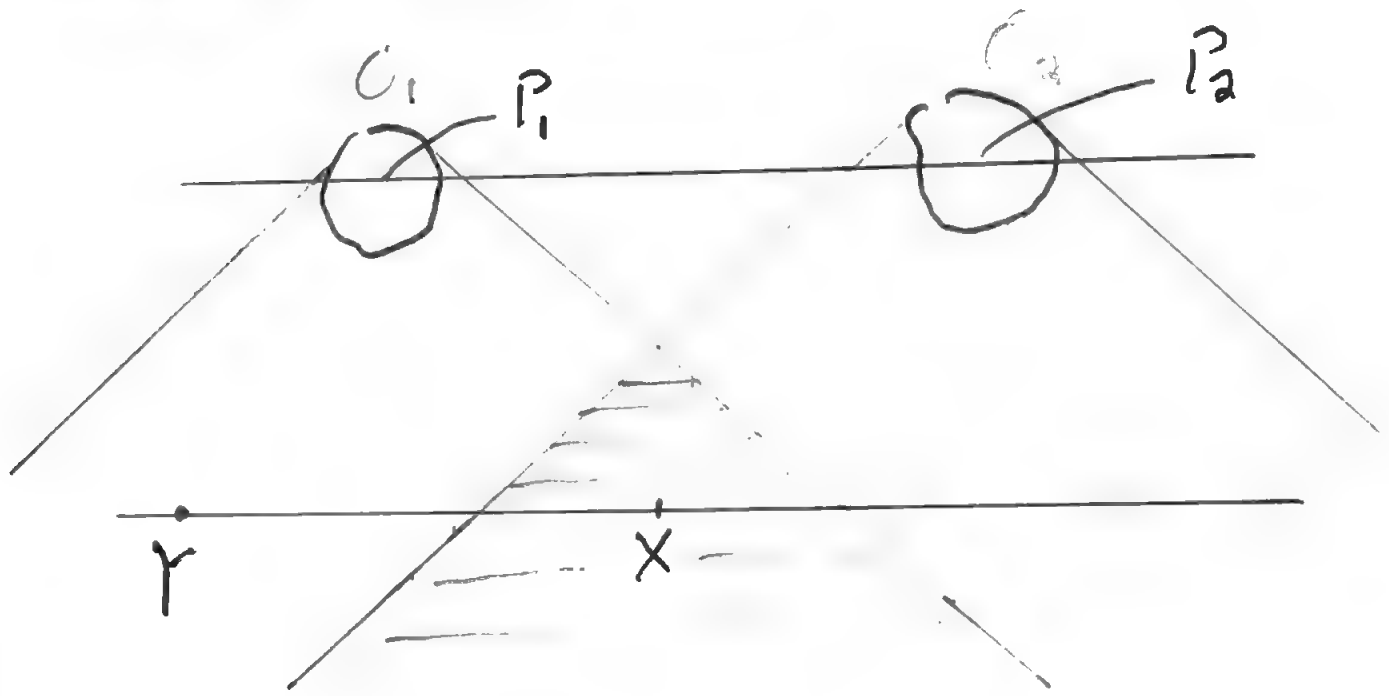
But $\sim B.I.$

$\therefore R \Rightarrow \sim LOC_R$

The Bell Experiment



The Vacuum version

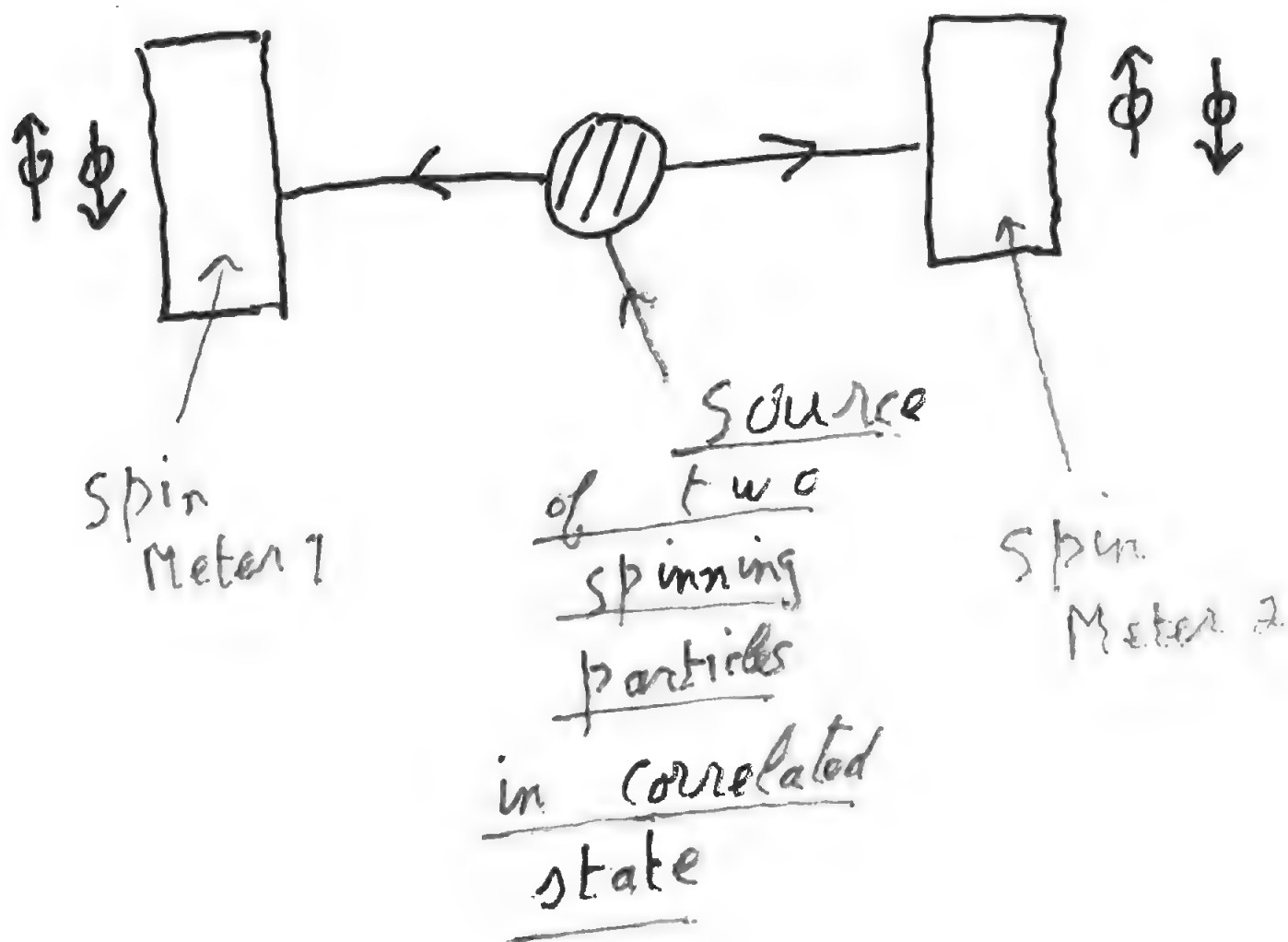


So even if the Bell Inequality was not violated, the common cause explanation would involve an infinite regress, on pain of merely accepting the correlations at some earlier time as 'brute facts'.

But if we are prepared to do this at an earlier time, why not at the later time?!

i.e. whether the B.I. is violated or not, we cannot get an acceptable local explanation of the vacuum correlations.

The EPR Experiment (Bohm version)



2a Counterfactual versus Prediction in EPR

Instead of asking:

Can we predict the measurement outcome on the left, given a result 0_R on the right?

We ask:

Is it the case that if we made a measurement on the left there is a definite outcome, given that a result 0_R has actually occurred on the right, viz. the outcome correlated with 0_R .

RELATIVISTIC EPR

(30) 22

(Ghirardi & Grassi

SH PMP 25 (1994) 397)

LOC_{M-0} : Prohibits measurement outcomes being affected by other measurement procedures at space-like separation.

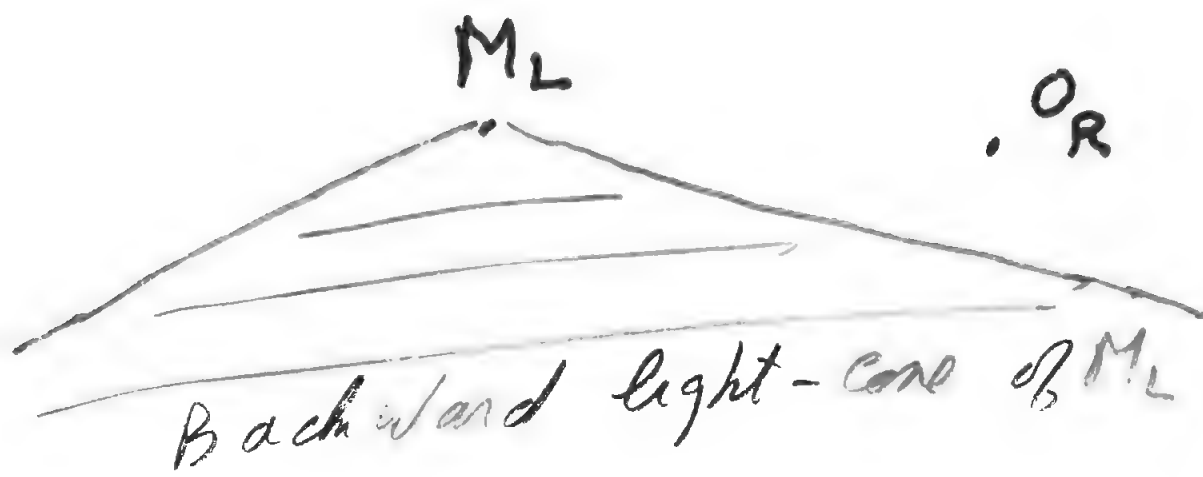
Then $G > G$ 'prove'

$$* \quad A + LOC_A + LOC_{M-0} \Rightarrow R \Rightarrow \sim A$$

$$\therefore A \Rightarrow \sim LOC_A \vee \sim LOC_{M-0}$$

But proof of * is problematic

Assumes Determinism



Given an outcome O_R on the right, then if I made a measurement M_L on the left would O_R remain the same?

Run the world over again up to the backward light-cone of M_L - then ask, what is the outcome O_R ? - it may well change on account of indeterminism, just as in the Redhead-Hellman critique of the Stapp-Eberhard proof of B.I.

Conclusion:..

Assuming anti-realism of possessed values, we are unable in the vacuum state, to obtain a proof of nonlocality by the EPR-type argument.

The correlations are just a 'brute fact' about the vacuum state — we cannot use the EPR argument to probe any deeper (pace Ghirardi and Grassi!).

Conclusion contd

Potential vacuum is
replaced by a
vacuum of potentialities

Neither Aristotle nor Einstein
would have found this acceptable!

Redhead 8+T

Lecture V

Gauge Theories

What is a gauge? ①

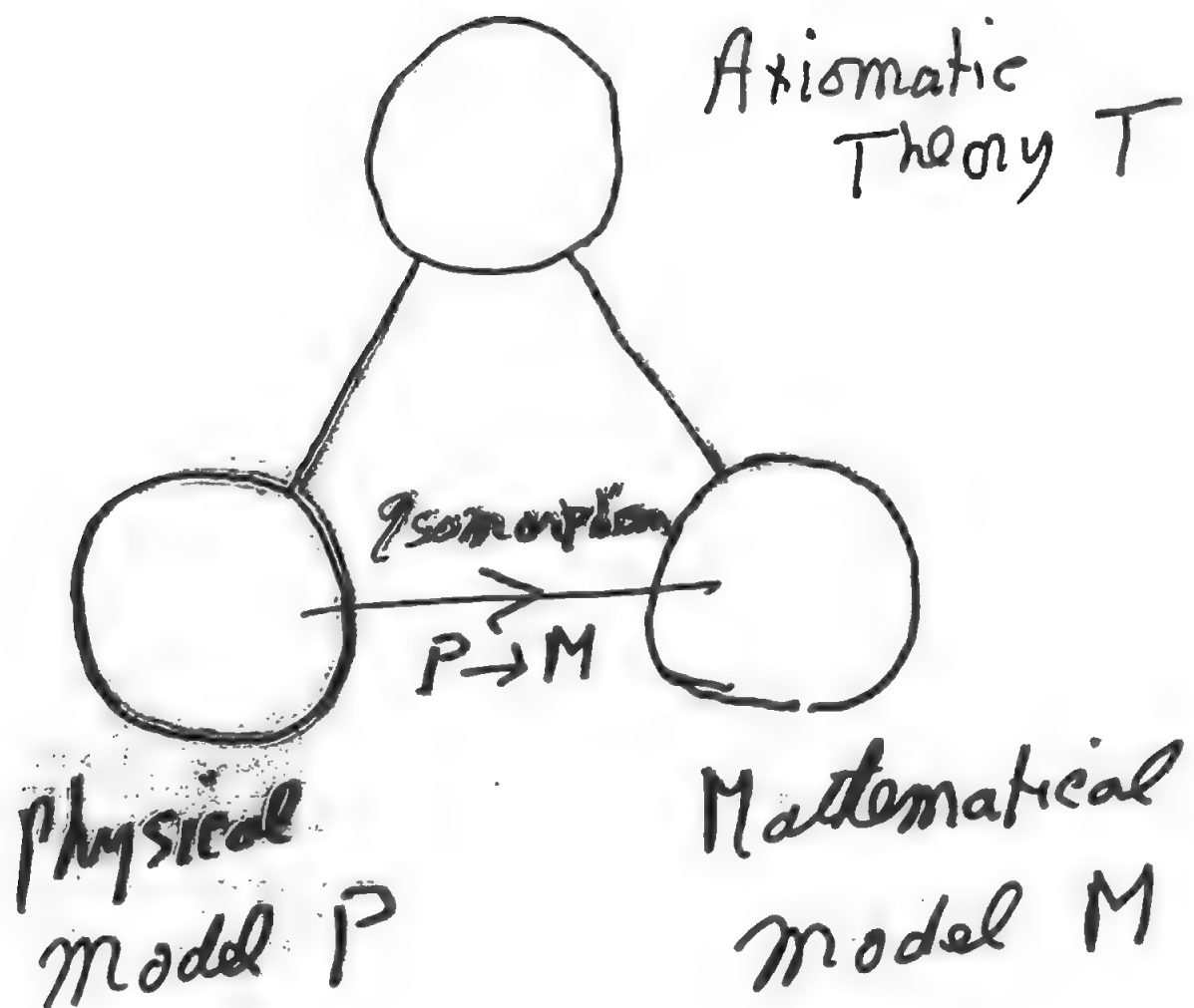
In everyday parlance 'gauge' refers to a system of measuring physical quantities, e.g. by comparing a physical magnitude with a standard or 'unit'. In this way physical magnitudes are associated with mathematical entities such as numbers.

More generally we may refer to the mathematical representation of any physical structure as a gauge for that structure.

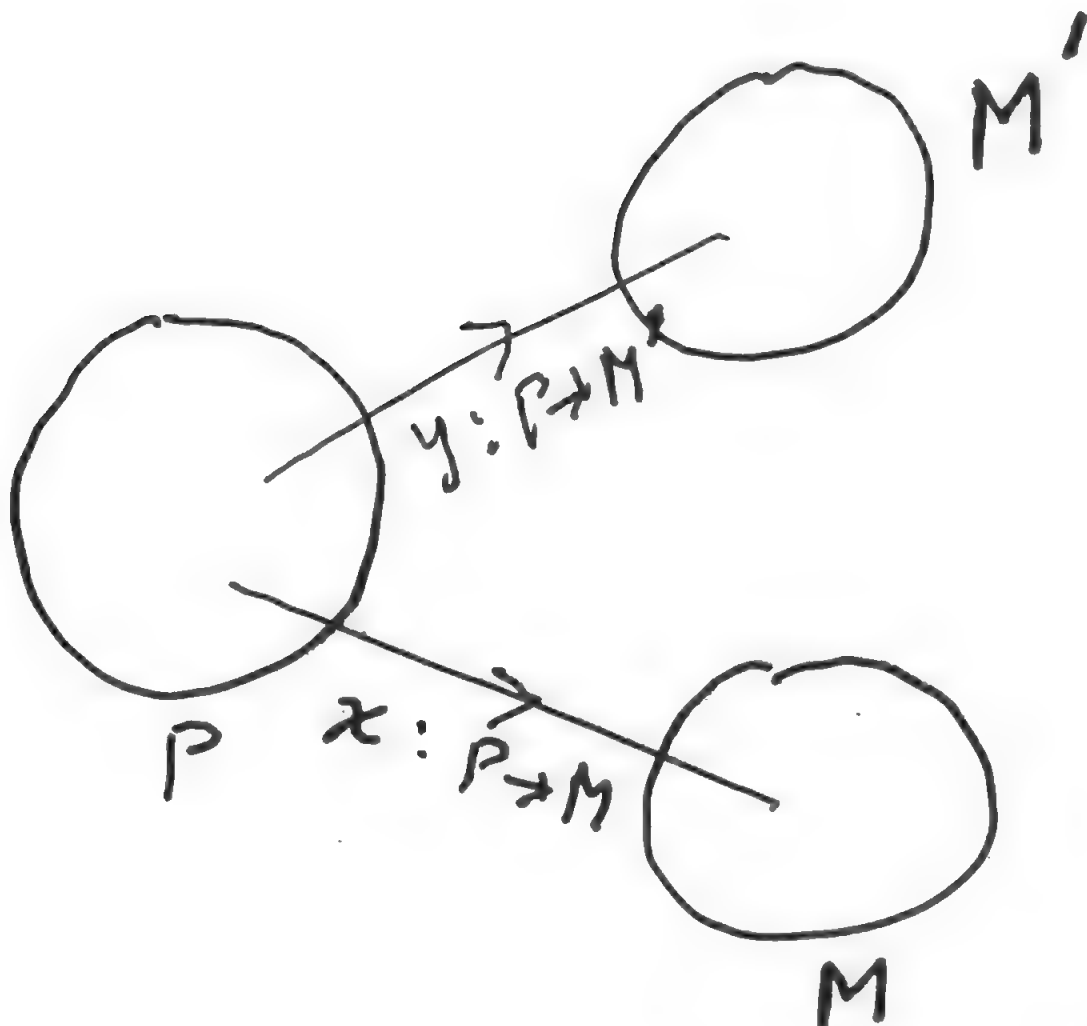
Ambiguity in representation leads to the notion of gauge transformation

(19) 2

Relation of Mathematics to Physics



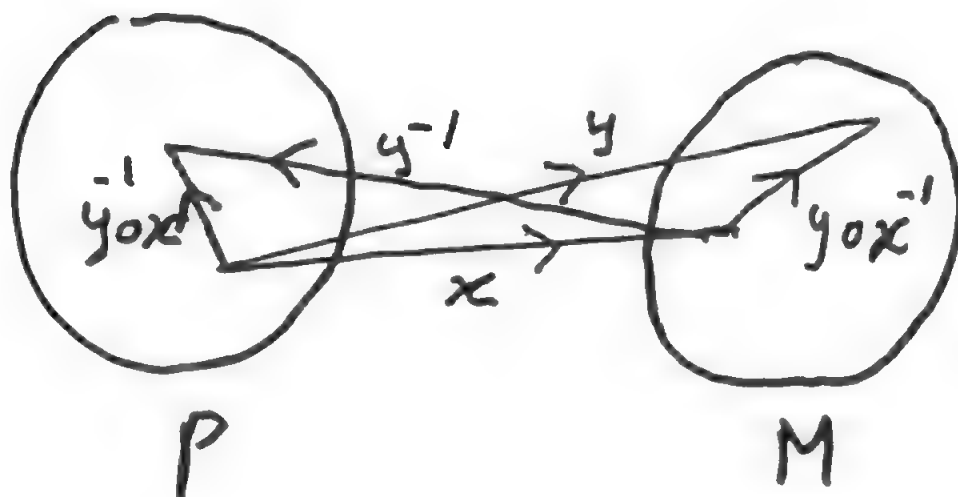
Ambiguity in Mathematical Representation



Ex Finite ordinal scales of measurement such as Moh's scale of hardness

Symmetry

3

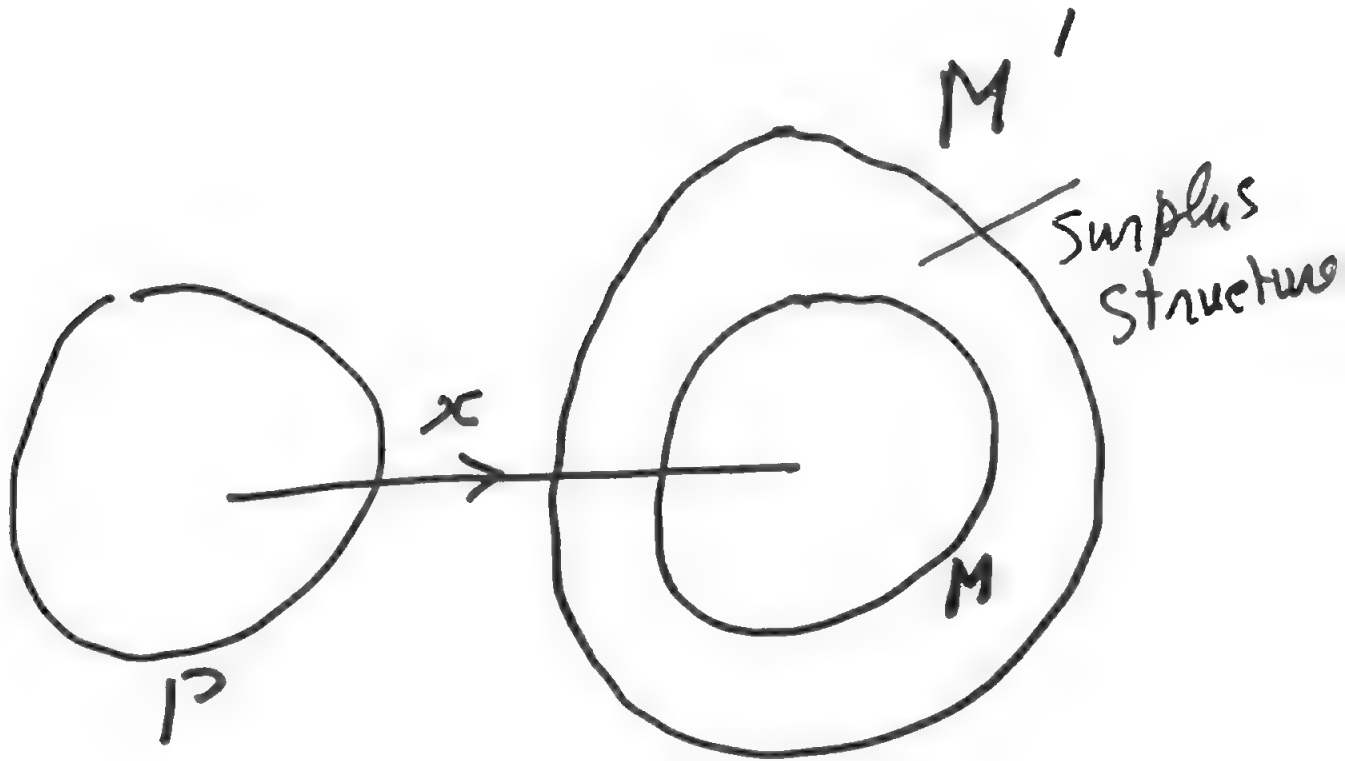


$x: P \rightarrow M$ and $y: P \rightarrow M$ are distinct isomorphisms between P and M

$y \circ x^{-1}: M \rightarrow M$ is a 'coordinate' transformation, or passive symmetry of P

$y^{-1} \circ x: P \rightarrow P$ is a point transformation, or active symmetry of P

Surplus Structure



$x : P \rightarrow M$ is an embedding
of P in the larger structure
 M'

Ex Embedding of real line in
the complex plane

Gauge Theories — Yang-Mills Type

Ex scalar electrodynamics

classically matter field ψ is a complex-valued function on spacetime

Lagrangian is invariant under global phase transformations

$$\psi \rightarrow \psi e^{i\alpha} \quad (1)$$

if we consider local phase transformations

$$\psi \rightarrow \psi e^{i\alpha(x)} \quad (2)$$

where $\alpha(x)$ is an arbitrary real-valued function on spacetime

Then Lagrangian remains invariant provided we use the 'corrected' derivative (6)

$\partial_\mu \rightarrow \partial_\mu - i A_\mu$, where the connection field A_μ transforms as

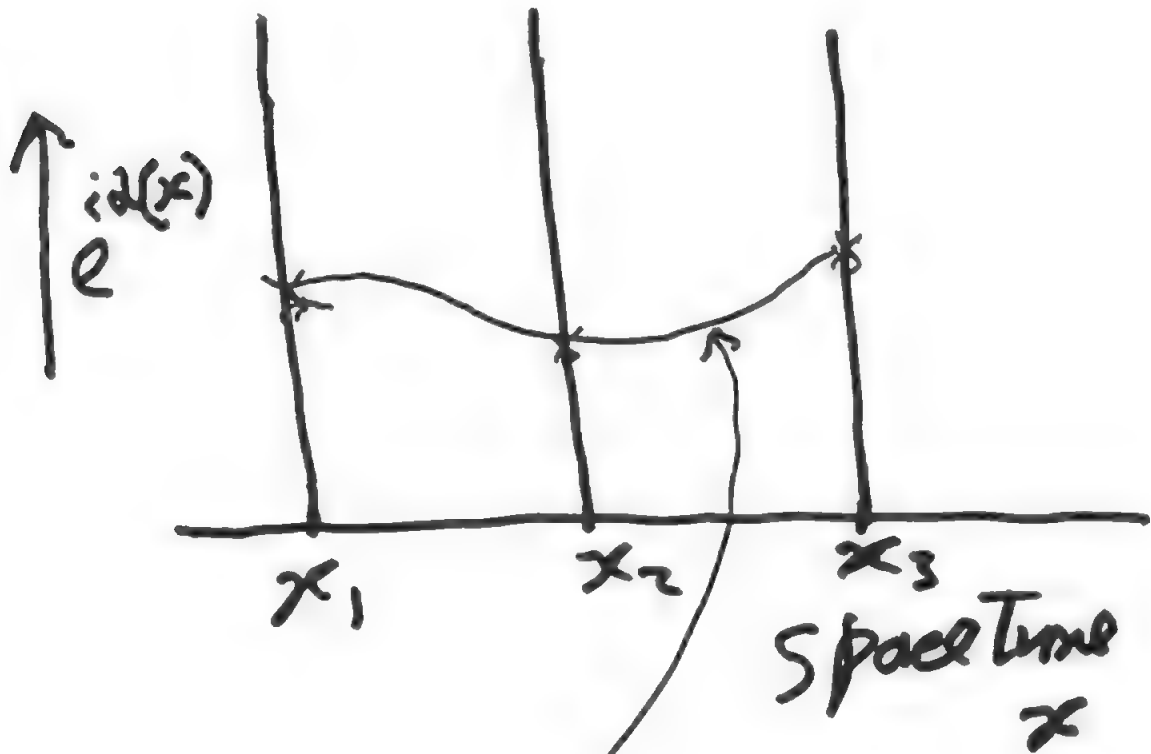
$$A_\mu \rightarrow A_\mu + \partial_\mu \alpha(x) \dots (3)$$

A_μ can be identified, modulo the electronic charge, with the electromagnetic potential.

Physically significant quantities are gauge invariant, e.g. $\psi^* \psi$ or the electromagnetic field $f_{\mu\nu} = A_{\nu,\mu} - A_{\mu,\nu}$.

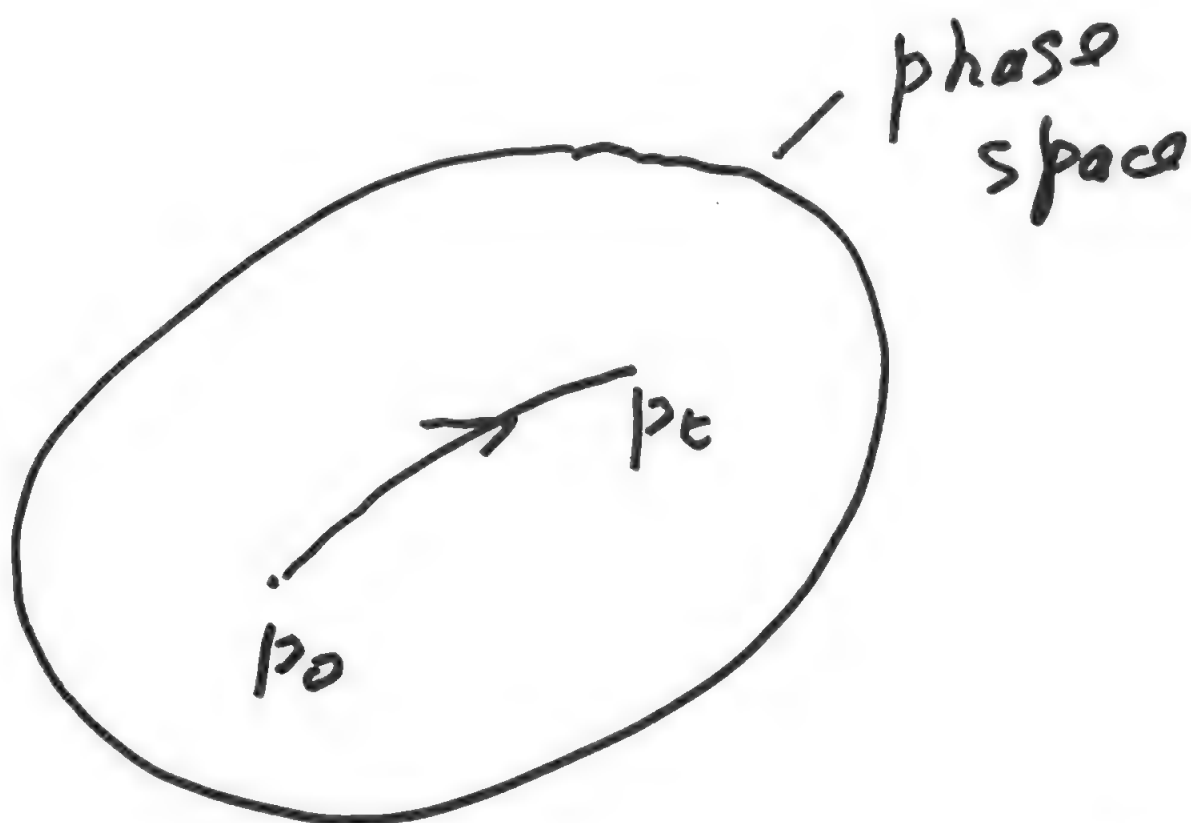
N.B. ψ and A_μ are elements of surplus structure, since they are not gauge invariant.

The $U(1)$ Bundle



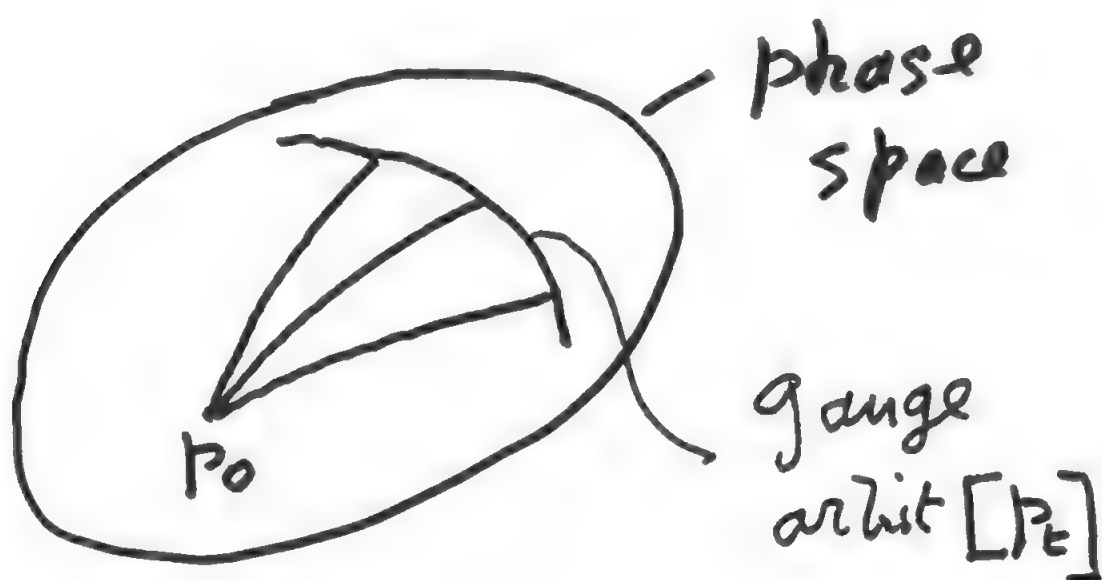
cross-section of 'constant'
phase as specified by
the connection field

Hamiltonian Systems



phase space is a symplectic manifold. Unique trajectory connects initial state p_0 to final state at time t , p_t .

Constrained Hamiltonian Systems



phase space is a presymplectic manifold. There is no unique trajectory connecting the initial state p_0 to the final state at time t , but all the final states lie on a gauge orbit $[p_t]$ whose points are connected by gauge transformations.

The Case of General Relativity

10

The frame bundle



Yang-Mills version

gauge group is $GL(4, \mathbb{R})$
acting on the fibres

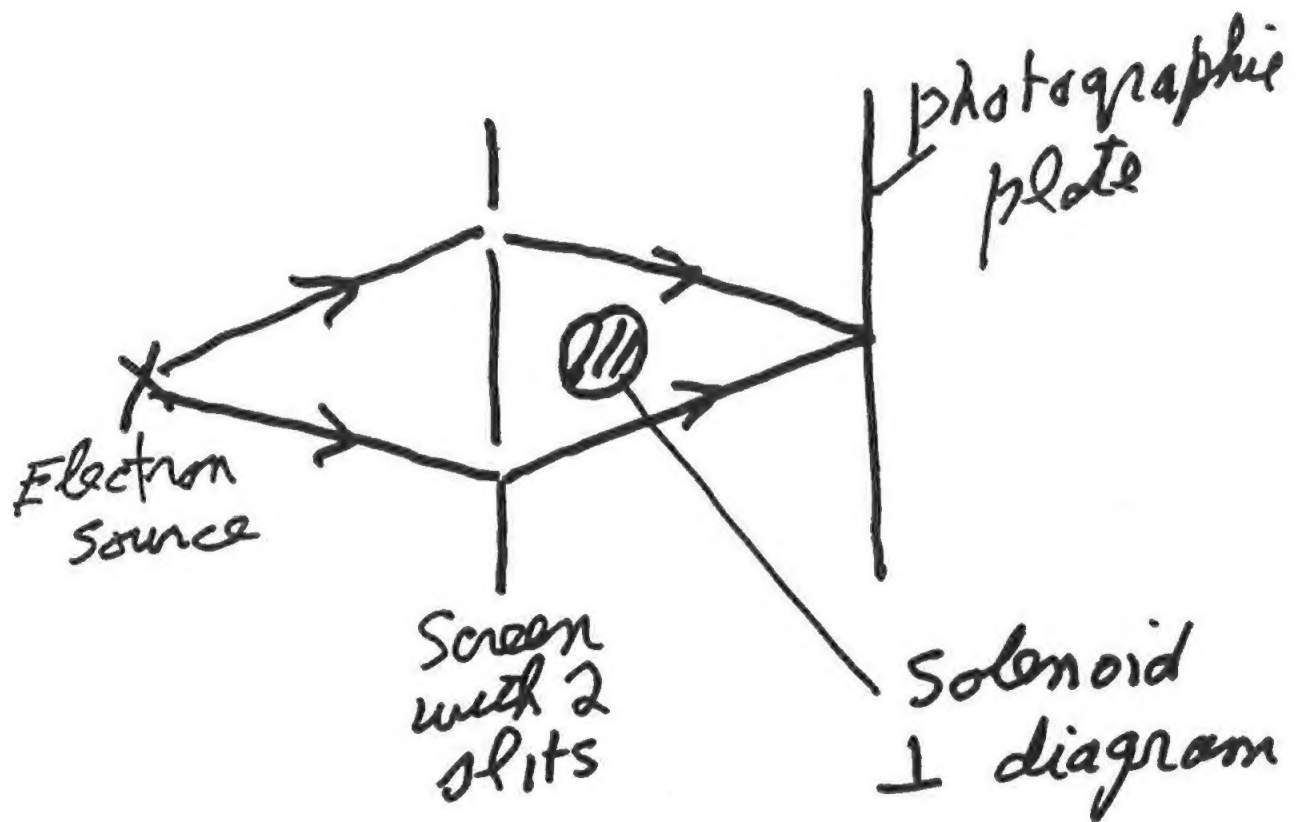
Constrained Hamiltonian version

Gauge group is effectively a
'manifestation' of Diff, the group
of (auto) diffeomorphisms acting on the
base space

7. Affine bundles in extensions of GR

The Aharonov-Bohm effect

11



Electron 'paths' are in region of zero magnetic induction \underline{B} , but non-zero vector potential \underline{A} .
The phase shift between the electrons from the 2 slits is proportional to the gauge invariant holonomy $\oint \underline{A} \cdot d\underline{\ell}$, which by Stokes Theorem equals the flux of \underline{B} inside the solenoid.

Becchi - Rouet - Stora

- Tyutin (BRST) Symmetry

ex scalar electrodynamics

We extend the ψ field and A_μ field to include other purely mathematical fields (more surplus structure!)

$$\Phi = \begin{pmatrix} \psi \\ A_\mu \\ \eta \\ \omega \\ \bar{b} \end{pmatrix} \begin{array}{l} \text{matter field} \\ \text{gauge potential} \\ \text{ghost field} \\ \text{anti ghost field} \\ \text{Nakanishi-Lautrup field} \end{array}$$

η and ω are scalar Grassmann fields

$$\text{So } \eta^2 = \omega^2 = 0$$

$$\Phi \rightarrow \bar{\Phi} + \epsilon s \Phi$$

where

$$s \Phi =$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} i\eta\psi \\ \partial_\mu \eta \\ 0 \\ \bar{\psi} \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

This is a gauge transformation where the phase field is a new dynamic field, the ghost field

ϵ is an infinitesimal Grassmann parameter

Notice $s^2 \Phi = 0$, so s is nilpotent and behaves like an exterior derivative on the extended space of fields.

This leads to a beautiful generalized de Rham cohomology theory

Further Generalizations:

(1) Ghosts of Ghosts
and Ghosts of Ghosts of Ghosts
--- !

(2) The Batalin-Vilkovisky
antifield formalism, which
introduces partners (antifields)
for all the fields

But the antifield of a ghost
is not an anti-ghost
and the anti(anti-ghost)
is not a ghost!